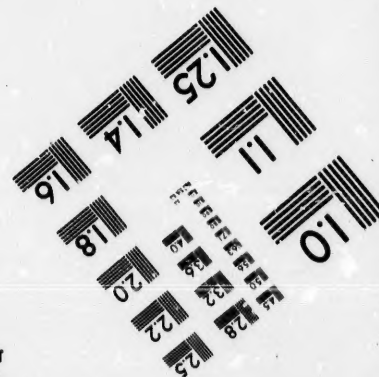
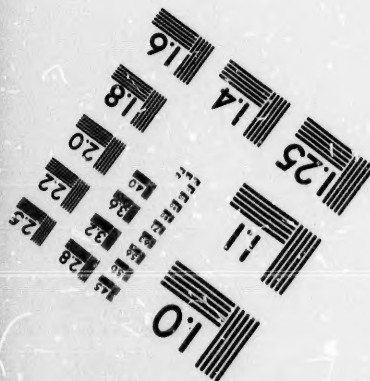
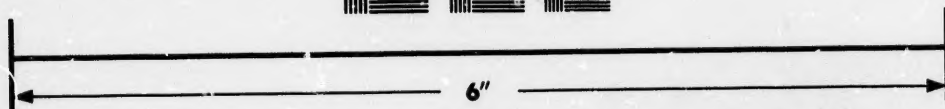
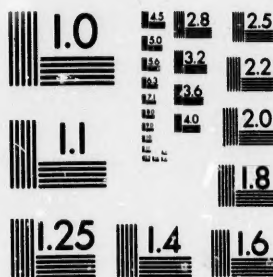


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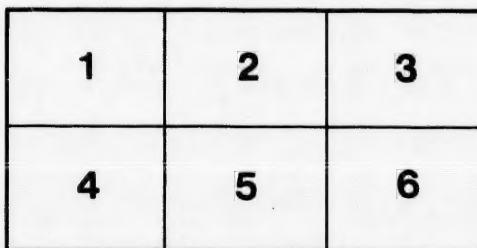
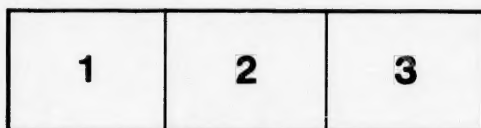
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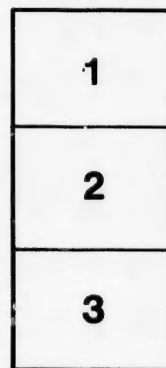
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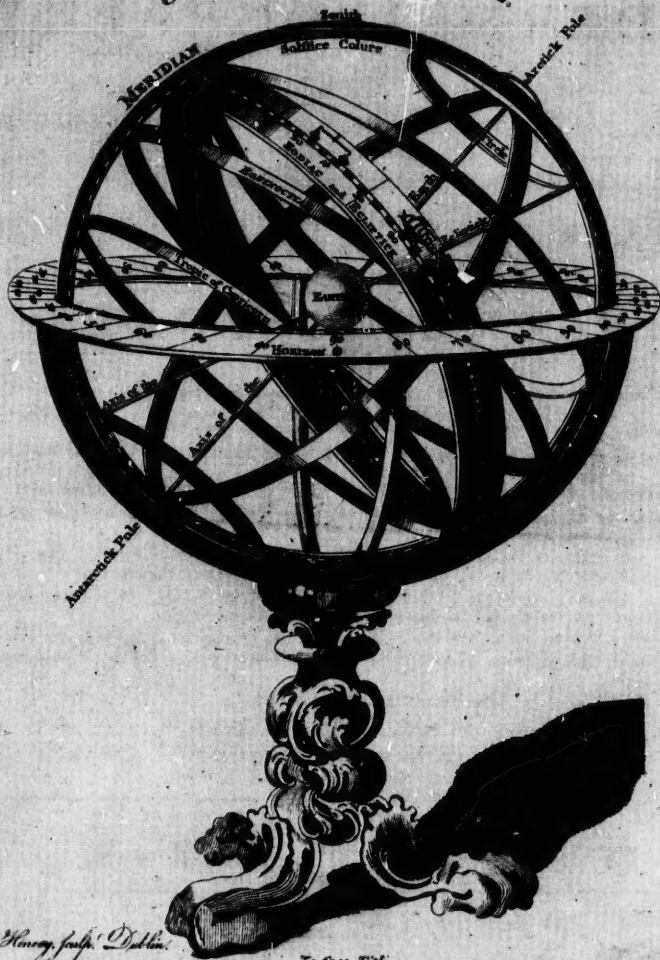
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M.DCC.LXXXIX.



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THE Editor deems it incumbent on him to give some account of the improvements made in this edition; as well for the information of the reader, as in justice to his own labours and expense; and especially as many may not have an opportunity of comparing it with English, or other editions, in order to ascertain what these improvements are.

In the *Introduction*, which contains an account of the rise and progress of Geography, and the principles of Astronomy, &c. &c. he has made several additions; equally with a view to the enlargement as the elucidation of the several subjects therein. These have increased this part of the work nearly double, and he presumes to hope have equally increased its value.

In the general description of *Europe*, he has been much indebted to the works of Zimmerman, for very valuable information on its present political state, and its comparative merits with the three other quarters of the globe. The account of *Asia* will be found totally different from the erroneous representations of all other English Geographies, as the Editor has paid particular attention to the celebrated *Memoir of Major Rennell*, of whose map of Hindostan he has given a faithful and elegant copy.

In respect to *America*, tho' he has made several additions, he must regret that the paucity of authentic materials here, prevents his extending this article much farther. He has however given some account of the Apocryphal States,—an authentic copy of the New Constitution of the Thirteen United States, and several other particulars, which have not appeared in any other Geography.

So little has been added to the stock of modern knowledge in respect to *Africa*, that the additions, like the resources, have been but trivial on that subject.

He has endeavoured to bring the occurrences of most countries down to a recent period; and in proportion to the importance of each in the political scale, so has he attended to such information as he could obtain from the accounts of late writers and travellers, or such other sources as offered an accession to his knowledge of them. Mr. Playfair's ingenious tables have furnished him with an accurate view of the trade of England with all the world, as well as other curious particulars:—from materials not less pure, he has given a state of her funds:—and thro' the obliging condescension of one of the first and best informed political characters in this country, he is enabled to communicate an authentic account of the political state of France, in respect to her revenue, expenses, debt, trade, army and navy, to so late a period as the close of the year 1787.

Having thus extended the view of other countries, his attention was then naturally turned to his own; the claims of which seemed the stronger, when he considered, that the contempt and indifference in which she was so long held by the sister kingdom, drew a veil over her character and importance, and left both scarcely known or heard of in the estimate of European politics. When a people value their own consequence at a low rate, their neighbours' opinion of it will not be more exalted; and the timid humility of this country, encouraged neglect, and had been too long an incitement to oppression, and a debasement of national reputation. But having at length asserted her dignity, she must soon emerge from the long night of obscurity in which she has been enveloped, and appear with that weight and influence, which her native resources so justly claim.

In respect to Ireland, then, he has endeavoured to give as full an account as the nature of the work would admit, and as her increasing importance evidently demands;—and where particular articles therein, offer a larger field for discussion or speculation than was compatible with his limits, he has given such tables, as, he flatters himself, will afford *data* for the future investigation of more elaborate dissertations.

ADVERTISEMENT.

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The Editor has to regret, that the assistance with which he has been favoured for this part of the work, by several eminent and respectable characters, cannot, from motives of delicacy, be more explicitly acknowledged; as the communication of their names would not have tended to lessen the opinion of their confessed abilities, knowledge, or patriotism, whilst it would have reflected lustre and honour on this work.

Of the maps he must observe, that they have been corrected of innumerable errors thro' the voluntary assistance of a gentleman of acknowledged abilities and acquaintance with the subject: their number has been increased much beyond that contained in the English edition; and among other additions, is that of *The countries round the North Pole*, upon a principle convenient and ingenious, and perhaps different from any yet seen in any other Geography. They have been all specially engraved for this work, by the first artists in these kingdoms, at a very considerable expense, and in a stile superior to those which generally accompany such publications.

He has thus endeavoured to convey an idea of his exertions to improve this Geography. In which, tho' conscious that more might have been done by the superior abilities of others, he presumes to claim, at least, the humble merit, of having made the first attempt of the kind in this kingdom, and of having omitted no endeavour to obtain the favourable sentiments of his countrymen. For whatever errors may have escaped, thro' lapse of attention, he deprecates their indulgence;—whatever deficiencies may appear, he begs them to consider, that, tho' much may have been omitted, yet much has been added; and that tho' perfection is always desirable, and often sought for, yet it is but seldom attained.

Such is the work now offered to the public;—undertaken not more with a view to profit, than to prove, that this country has spirit, when encouraged, not only to undertake literary publications on an English scale of liberality, but even to attempt improvement thereon:—how far he has succeeded in this endeavour, the unprejudiced judgment of the reader will now candidly determine.

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

ELEMENTS OF NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF GEOGRAPHY.

THE science of GEOGRAPHY cannot be completely understood without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. But the science which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called ASTRONOMY. Hence the necessity of beginning this work with an account of astronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of these, the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it; and which, together with the sun, compose what astronomers have called the Solar System. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the sun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by astronomers, that there are six planets which move round the sun, each in its own orbit. The names of these, according to their nearness to the centre, or middle point of the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn. The two first, because they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the sun) are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the three last, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *superior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of these planets, suppose our earth, moves round the sun, we can easily conceive the manner in which all the rest do it. We shall only therefore particularly consider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we shall set down with such explications as may render it intelligible to the meanest capacity.

The word Geography is derived from the Greek, and, literally, signifies a description of the earth, its figure, magnitude, and the positions of several parts of its

This art, like all others of a practical nature, has advanced towards perfection by slow, and, in some periods of time, by almost imperceptible degrees. In the infancy of the world the figure of the earth was unknown. It was generally supposed to be a plane, circular surface, terminated by the heavens; that this plane was of no remarkable thickness; and that the regions below it were the habitations of spirits.

Observations, however, soon demonstrated, that this was not the real figure of the earth. The desire of keeping up a mutual intercourse between each other, and of exchanging their different commodities, induced the inhabitants of ancient times to undertake journeys of considerable length; and these were extended in proportion as the inhabitants spread themselves into distant countries. Their principal guides in these journeys were the heavenly bodies; the sun was their direction during the day, and the stars supplied his place in the night. The plains of Asia, where these discoveries were made, are extremely favourable for contemplating the face of the heavens during the night. Blessed with a climate generally serene, the sky is rarely obscured; and the practice of sleeping upon the house-tops, which has been continued from the earliest ages, rendered the positions of the stars familiar. They could not help observing, that, while the greater part revolved round the earth, some in the northern parts remained nearly in the same situation; and that the sun every day, in his greatest elevation, was directly opposite to the place of these stars. Hence it was natural to imagine, that all the heavenly bodies revolved round some fixed point situated near those stars; and this point they called the pole. Assisted by these discoveries, however imperfect, and animated with the desire of carrying on a commerce with distant people, they travelled to very remote countries, and traded with the inhabitants of other climes. Those who directed their journeys to the south, could not help observing, that the fixed point round which the heavens appeared to revolve, was nearer the horizon there than in their own country; and that new stars appeared in the southern extremities of the heavens, which they had not seen before. On the contrary, those who directed their course towards the north, perceived that some of the stars in the southern hemisphere became more depressed, and those in the northern more elevated than in their own country. Hence they saw that the earth was not a plane, as they had at first imagined, but a curve. They further observed, that after passing over equal distances in the direction of the meridian, the greatest and least elevations of the stars were equally increased or diminished; and hence they found, that, in the direction of the meridian, at least, the surface of the earth was circular. From this period geography improved gradually by travels, by commerce, and by conquest.

Homer has described so many places with great accuracy and precision, that Strabo considered him as the first among the geographers of early times. The expedition of Alexander, who extended his conquests into India, and to the borders of Scythia, made the Greeks acquainted with many countries very remote from their own. That conqueror entertained in his service two engineers, Diognetus and Boeton, whose business consisted in measuring, and keeping an accurate account of his marches. Pliny and Strabo have preserved these measures; Arrian has handed down to us the particulars of the navigation of Nearchus and Onesicritus, who sailed back with Alexander's fleet from the mouth of the Indus to those of the Euphrates and Tigris. By reducing Tyre and Sidon, the Greeks informed themselves of all the places to which the Phoenicians traded by sea; and we know that their commerce extended even to the British islands. The successors of Alexander in the East, by carrying their conquests to the mouths of the Ganges, obtained a general knowledge of many parts of India. Ptolomy Evergetes led his armies into Abyssinia; and from his marches and

INTRODUCTION.

success in that distant country, a general knowledge of it was obtained. But geography acquired still greater advantages from the conquests of the Romans. Ambitious of establishing an universal monarchy, and of forcing all the inhabitants of the earth to submit to the Roman eagles, they carried their armies into very remote countries, and conquered the inhabitants of distant climes. Hence the geographers of those times were enabled to describe countries before hardly known, and correct the errors of former writers. The great roads of the empire, measured through their whole extent, proved extremely useful; and the Itineraries, though often altered, and sometimes incorrect, afforded considerable assistance. Accordingly most of the valuable geographical treatises wrote by the ancients, were composed during the reigns of the Roman emperors.

Strabo and Ptolemy are the first among the ancient geographers, and dispute the chair of precedence. The geography of Ptolemy is more extensive; it takes in a greater part of the earth, while it seems equally circumstantial every where: but this very extent renders it the more suspected; it is not easy to be every where exact and correct. Strabo, on the contrary, relates very little more than what he saw with his own eyes; he made a vast number of voyages to gain the experience necessary to give the requisite certainty to his accounts, and is very short in what he relates from others. Strabo was a philosopher as well as a geographer: good sense, perspicuity, accuracy, and solidity of judgment, are visible in every part of his works. Ptolemy, however by disposing his geography by latitudes and longitudes, opened a way for improvement, and pointed out a method for carrying the art to perfection.

Astronomy, though then in its infancy, was not neglected by the ancient geographers. They were convinced, that, without its assistance, no great progress could be made in their art. Their instruments, indeed, were inaccurate and imperfect, but they were assiduous in their observations. They generally determined the latitudes of places by the shadow of a gnomon of some known height; but they had no other method for determining the longitudes of places, than that of observing the eclipses of the moon: they knew, that by comparing the times when any of these phenomena happened at different places, the difference of longitude between them might be known.

The parts of the earth's surface known to the ancients, were confined within narrow bounds. On the west, the Atlantic ocean and the British isles limited their knowledge. The fortunate islands, now called the Canaries, were the remotest lands they were acquainted with. Their notions were very imperfect with regard to the northern countries. Though Scandinavia was known, yet that, and some other countries on the same continent, were considered as large islands. It is not easy to determine what place the ancients understood by *ultima Thule*, many take it for Iceland, but Procopius thinks it was a part of Scandinavia.

Their knowledge of Sarmatia and Scythia was far from extending to the sea which bounds Russia and Great Tartary on the north and east: their discoveries went no farther than the Rhipæan mountains, which now divide Russia from Siberia.

The western frontier of China seems to have bounded the knowledge of the ancients on the east. Ptolemy, indeed, had a very imperfect notion of the southern parts of that extensive empire.

The famous Taprobana, now called Ceylon, was the only island of Asia known to the ancients. All the others, which now make so conspicuous a figure in the commerce of Europe, were unknown.

How far the ancients extended their discoveries with regard to Africa, cannot certainly be known. Some are of opinion, that they were acquainted with the whole

Zealand, which is the southernmost island of the East Indies, and which is now called Java.

coast, having sailed round the southern extremity, now called the Cape of Good Hope, and extended their voyages from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean; Ptolemy, however, seems to insinuate, that the southern parts had escaped their knowledge. Indeed, the opinion almost universally embraced by the ancients, that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, seems to prove, that their knowledge of Africa was very confined; because, as great part of that country lies in the burning zone, their acquaintance with it must have convinced them, that the general notion was founded on mistake.

The discovery of the southern parts of Africa was reserved for the Portuguese. Animated with a desire of finding a passage to the East-Indies, they coasted along the western side of Africa, and, in the fifteenth century, completed the design. They passed the Cape of Good Hope, and pursued their course to the Indies. The passage being thus opened, several European nations, desirous of sharing in the rich commerce of the East, sent their ships to the Indian sea, where they discovered the Asiatic islands, and penetrated to the empire of Japan. The voyages of the Russians have completed our knowledge of the eastern parts of the continent of Asia.

The prodigious length of the voyage to India, round the southern extremity of Africa, induced Christopher Columbus to attempt the discovery of a shorter tract. About the end of the fifteenth century he crossed the Atlantic ocean; but, instead of the Indies, he found America, and put the crown of Castile, under whose auspices the voyage was undertaken, in possession of a New World.

S E C T. II.

MAGNITUDE AND FIGURE OF THE EARTH.

THOUGH the ancients were persuaded that the earth was spherical, they were not able to ascertain its dimensions. The solution of that useful problem was, indeed, attempted by Aristotle, Eratosthenes, Posidonius, and others; but they differed so widely from each other, and all of them from the truth, that very little advantage resulted from their labours. Indeed the very figure of the earth was disputed, and its magnitude so little known at the end of the fifteenth century, that no objection, drawn from the western distance between Spain and the Indies, was made to the proposals of Columbus: though it is evident, that had not the American continent opposed his passage, he must have perished in the attempt. His crew became mutinous, and even his own courage and confidence were on the point of forsaking him, when he discovered the Bahama islands, though he had then sailed little more than one-third of the distance to the East-Indies. But the discoveries of that great man animated others in the noble cause; voyages were made to different parts, and new countries were every day discovered. Genius now awoke from its lethargy, and the dawn of learning began to dispel the gloom of ignorance and error. The question which had so long engaged the attention of the ancients, relative to the magnitude of the earth, was again revived, and the solution attempted by many of the most eminent mathematicians in that age of laborious enquiry: but all their endeavours proved abortive; the solution still eluded their utmost efforts. In the mean time, every day afforded additional proofs that the earth was of a spherical figure; they observed, that the first part that appeared of a ship at sea, was the top of the mast, and, as she approached gradually, she seemed to rise by degrees out of the water, till the whole ship was visible: the same appearances, but in an inverted order, attended a ship sailing from the spectator; she seemed to sink gradually beneath

the surface of the sea, till at last she totally disappeared. But this could result from nothing but the spherical figure of the earth; and as these phenomena required no apparatus, they sufficiently established the globular form of the earth. If any further proof could be wanting, it was furnished by Ferdinand Magellan, who, in the year 1519, sailed round the globe, and, by that means, demonstrated at once its sphericity, and the existence of the antipodes, which had been so strenuously denied by the ignorant tongue of superstitious bigotry. Sir Francis Drake made the same tour in 1577, and Sir Thomas Cavendish in 1586: but still the dimensions of the earth were unknown; and the mathematicians were yet engaged in the solution of a problem which eluded all their researches. Our countryman, Mr. Richard Norwood, was the first whose labours were crowned with success: that able mathematician solved the problem in the year 1635. The principle on which he proceeded was this: every great circle, either of the earth or celestial sphere, is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; and these circles are considered as concentric to the center of the earth. Hence he justly concluded, that if the distance under the meridian on the earth's surface, corresponding to one or more degrees of latitude, could be accurately measured, the whole circumference of the earth, in the same measure, would also be known; and, consequently the problem be accurately solved. Accordingly he pitched upon London and York for his two stations, these cities lying nearly under the same meridian. The difficulty now consisted in finding the length of the arch of the terrestrial meridian, intercepted between the parallels of latitude passing through those places. This difficulty he removed, by carefully observing the angles where the road deviated from the plane of the meridian, reducing the hypotenusal lines of the hills and uneven ground to a level, measuring the whole distance along the roads leading from one place to the other, and, in the manner of traverse-sailing, by finding the difference of latitude, or length of that arch of the terrestrial meridian, he also, with a very good instrument, found the distance between the zeniths of these two places; and consequently knew the quantity of the celestial arch answering to the measured terrestrial one: then saying, as that celestial arch is to a great circle of the celestial sphere, or 360 degrees; so is the arch of the terrestrial arch measured in feet, to the circumference of the earth in feet measure. The result of the operation was, that the whole circumference is equal to 132192000 feet, and consequently a degree of a great circle on the earth is 367200 English feet, or something more than sixty-nine miles and a half. Several years after, Picard, by the order of Lewis XIV. measured a degree of the meridian in France, between Malvoysine and Amiens, and found it to be 57060 toises, or 364233 English feet. Cassini repeated Picard's mensuration in the year 1718, and the result of his operations agreed exactly with that of Picard. Professor Muschenbroek measured a degree of the meridian between Alenmaer and Leyden, and found it to contain 57033 toises, or 364061 English feet: and lastly, Cassini the Younger, assisted by the Abbé de la Caille, found the length of a degree of the meridian, in the parallel of 45 degrees, to be equal to 57050 toises, or 364169 English feet. From all these mensurations, the length of a degree of the meridian, supposing the earth a true sphere, is sufficiently determined: but it is customary to divide the degree into sixty equal parts, because there are sixty minutes in a degree; and these divisions, or minutes, are called geographical miles, which must be distinguished from English miles; the former being equal to 6120 feet, and the latter to 5280.

From the above mensuration, every thing relating to the dimensions of the earth may be found, supposing it a true sphere: but, from several observations made upon pendulums; it has appeared that the earth is not truly spherical, but an oblate spher-

roid, or flatted at the poles, something in the form of a flat turnep. The first observations that gave occasion to these enquiries were made by M. Richer, at Cayenne, an island on the coast of Guiana, in the year 1672. That gentleman observed, that his pendulum clock, which had been regulated at Paris to the mean motion of the sun, when carried to the above island, which lies within five degrees of the equinoctial, lost two minutes and twenty-eight seconds every day. This discovery being published at his return, engaged the attention of the most eminent mathematicians of the age. It was immediately perceived, that the slowness of the pendulum must proceed from a diminution of gravity; and, consequently, that the pressure of gravity was less at Cayenne than at Paris: it however required a more subtle investigation to discover the cause of this diminution in the pressure of gravity, but nothing was too difficult for the piercing genius of Sir Isaac Newton; he soon discovered, that this diminution in the force of gravity, resulted from the increase of the centrifugal force, and, in consequence, that the figure of the earth was not a true sphere, but an oblate spheroid. Every body, or particle of matter, that describes a circle round its centre, makes a continual effort to recede from that centre. It is this force which strains a sling with a stone in it, while you whirl it round, and, were it great enough, would even break the sling; this effort is called the centrifugal force: to this all revolving bodies are subject, and, if they perform their revolutions in the same time, it is proportional to the greatness of the circle they describe.

Now since the earth revolves round its axis in twenty-four hours, all the bodies, or particles of matter which compose it, will describe circles; and consequently each will, more or less, partake of this centrifugal force, in proportion to the circle it describes: and because the particles under the equator describe the greatest circle, therefore they will have the greatest degree of centrifugal force; and the nearer the poles a particle is situated, the less will be its degree of centrifugal force, because the circle it describes will be smaller. The whole effect of this force tends to make bodies recede from the centre of the circle they describe; and a part of it is opposite to that of gravity, whose force every where impels bodies towards the centre of the earth. On this principle, and knowing the difference between the pressure of gravity at Cayenne and Paris, Sir Isaac Newton undertook to determine the true figure of the earth; and, according to his calculations, the diameter at the poles, or axis of the earth, and the diameter of the equator, are to each other as 229 to 230.

But as all conclusions resulting from questions of the most abstruse kind will ever leave some doubt on the mind, whether every necessary circumstance has been taken into the account, it was determined to refer the decision to actual mensuration; it being sufficiently known, that if the earth was a true sphere, all the degrees of the meridian must be equal; but every one of them of different lengths if the figure was that of a spheroid. It was also known, that if the length of the degrees increased from the equator towards the poles, the figure was that of an oblate spheroid; but if they increased from the poles towards the equator, the figure was a prolate spheroid, or something in the form of a lemon. Consequently if the length of a degree at the equator, and the length of another near the arctic circle could be accurately measured, both the form and dimensions of the earth might be determined to a degree of accuracy sufficient to answer all the purposes of navigation and geography.

The king of France, desirous of having this interesting problem solved, sent one company of mathematicians into Lapland, and another into Peru, in order to measure the length of a degree of the meridian in these distant places. The former finished their task in 1736, and found that the length of a degree of the meridian where it cuts the arctic circle, contained 57437 fms, or 57438 toises nearly. The latter, who

of the shape of a lemon. The figure of the earth is not a true sphere, but an oblate spheroid, or something in the form of a lemon. This may be owing to the repulsion of the poles?

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went to Peru also finished their operations in 1736, and found that the length of a degree at the equator, was 56767 $\frac{1}{2}$, or almost 56768 toises. These mensurations not only confirmed the theory of Sir Isaac Newton, but also demonstrated that he had determined the figure of the earth to a great degree of exactness; the two diameters being to each other nearly as 265 to 266 $\frac{1}{4}$.

If we make use of Norwood's measure of a degree, as that is generally preferred, and suppose the earth a true sphere, we shall have 25020 English miles for the circumference of the earth. But by considering its true figure, and making use of the above mensurations, the circumference of the earth at the equator will be 25020, and the length of an elliptical meridian 24927.

From what has been said it sufficiently appears, that though the earth is an oblate spheroid, yet the difference between the two diameters and their circumferences is but small. Had the difference been more considerable, it would greatly have affected all nautical and geographical conclusions deduced from a sphere; but the smallness of the difference renders the error scarce sensible, unless the distance be very large, and the latitudes very high. A general idea therefore of this curious subject will be sufficient, as there will be no necessity for considering the earth in any other manner than that of a sphere.

SECTION III.

DEFINITIONS AND PRINCIPLES. THE EARTH DIVIDED INTO ZONES AND CLIMATES.

AXIS AND POLES.] On the surface of the terraqueous globe are two points called the poles of the earth, diametrically opposite to each other; one called the north pole, and the other the south pole. A line drawn from one of these poles to the other is called the earth's axis.

EQUATOR.] The first great circle we shall speak of is the *Equator*, it is called sometimes the *Equinoctial*; and by navigators it is also called the *Line*, because, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the sea from east to west, dividing the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern, and southern hemispheres. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

MERIDIANS.] The meridians are imaginary circles on the earth, passing through both poles, and cutting the equator at right-angles. Every point on the surface of the earth has its proper meridian, and consequently their number is limited.

LATITUDE.] The latitude of a place is its distance from the equator, reckoned in degrees, minutes, &c. on the meridian. If the place is situated between the equator and the north pole, it is said to be in north latitude; if it lies between the equator and the south pole, it is in south latitude.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The intersection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, shews the true situation of that place.

DIFFERENCE OF LATITUDE is an arch of the meridian, or the least distance between two parallels of latitude; and shews how far one of them is to the north-

ward or southward of the other. The difference of latitude can never exceed a semicircle, or 180 degrees.

LONGITUDE.] The *longitude* of a place is its situation with regard to its meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. These degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the following table.

A TABLE shewing the Number of Miles contained in a degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	16	57	60	31	51	43	46	41	68	61	29	04
2	59	94	17	57	30	32	50	88	47	41	00	62	28	17
3	59	92	18	57	04	33	50	32	48	40	15	63	27	24
4	59	86	19	56	73	34	49	74	49	39	36	64	26	30
5	59	77	20	56	38	35	49	45	50	38	57	65	25	36
6	59	67	21	56	00	36	48	54	51	37	73	66	24	41
7	59	56	22	55	63	37	47	92	52	37	00	67	23	45
8	59	40	23	55	23	38	47	28	53	36	16	68	22	48
9	59	20	24	54	81	39	46	62	54	35	26	69	21	51
10	59	08	25	54	38	40	46	00	55	34	41	70	20	52
11	58	89	26	54	00	41	45	88	56	33	55	71	19	54
12	58	68	27	53	44	42	44	95	57	32	67	72	18	55
13	58	46	28	53	00	43	43	88	58	31	79	73	17	54
14	58	22	29	52	48	44	43	15	59	30	90	74	16	53
15	58	00	30	51	96	45	42	43	60	30	00	75	15	52

DIFFERENCE OF LONGITUDE is an arch of the equator intercepted between the meridians of two places; shewing how far one of them is situated to the eastward or westward of the other. The difference of longitude can never exceed 180 degrees; because longitude being reckoned both east and west from some meridian, both the eastern and western longitudes must terminate at the opposite meridian, which is 180 degrees from the first. Nor is the difference of longitude at all affected by the alteration of the first meridian; it will be the same, whether the longitude is reckoned from the meridian of Ferro, of Paris, or of London.

HORIZON.] The horizon is that apparent circle which limits, or bounds the view of the spectator on the sea, or on an extended plain; the eye of the spectator being always supposed in the center of the horizon. The horizon is either sensible

or mathematical. The former is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight when we view the heavens round us from any part of the earth or sea; the latter is that which supposes the eye to be placed in the center of the earth, beholding one half of the entire firmament at one view. All astronomical calculations refer to the mathematical horizon. When the sun or stars appear above the eastern part of the horizon, they are said to rise; and when they descend below the western part, they are said to set.

When two places have latitudes both north or both south, and longitudes both east or both west, they are said to be of the same, or similar names; but when one hath north latitude and the other south; or if one has east, and the other west longitude, they are said to have contrary or dissimilar names.

DIVISION OF THE EARTH INTO ZONES.

The surface of the earth is supposed to be divided into five unequal parts called zones, each of which is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of these five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are styled frigid or frozen; and two temperate: names adapted to the quality of the heat and cold to which their situations are liable.

The torrid zone is that portion of the earth over every part of which the sun is perpendicular at some time of the year. The breadth of this zone is forty-seven degrees; extending from twenty-three degrees and a half north latitude, to twenty-three degrees and a half south. The equator passes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude called the tropic of Cancer, and on the south by the parallel called the tropic of Capricorn. The ancients considered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be supported by any human being, or even by the vegetable creation; but experience has long since refuted this notion. Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almost every part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but also so fruitful, that two harvests a year are very common. All sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls, than all the rest of the earth together.

This zone comprehends the East and West Indies, Philippine Islands, greater part of South America and Africa, and almost all Captain Cook's discoveries, including the northern parts of New Holland.

The frigid zones are those regions round the pole where the sun does not rise for some days in the winter, nor set for some days in the summer. The two poles are the centers of these zones, which extend from these points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and southern parallels of latitude of sixty-six degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemisphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctic, or polar circle; and that in the southern hemisphere, the south frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle.

The northern frigid zone comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia.—The southern frigid zone has no land known to us.

The two temperate zones are the spaces contained between the tropics and polar circles

The northern temperate zone contains almost all Europe, the greater part of Asia, part of Africa, the United States of America, and the British Colonies.—The southern temperate zone comprizes the south part of New Holland, (including Botany-Bay) Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn.

DIVISION OF THE EARTH INTO CLIMATES.

The word climate, in a geographical sense, implies a certain space of the earth contained between two parallels of latitude, where the difference between the longest day in each parallel is half an hour; a difference arising solely from the different inclination or obliquity of the sphere.

These climates decrease in breadth, in proportion as they advance from the equator towards the poles. If, therefore, we suppose the equator the beginning of the first climate, the polar circle will be the end of the twenty-fourth; for afterwards the longest day increases not by half hours, but by days and months.

This method of indicating the situation of places was used by the ancients; who, considering the diversity there is in the rising and setting of the heavenly bodies, particularly the sun, and in consequence thereof, the difference in the length of the days and nights in different places, divided as much of the earth as was known to them, into climates; and instead of the method now in use, of setting down the latitudes of places in degrees and minutes, they contented themselves with mentioning the climate in which any place under consideration is situated. But since the more accurate method of giving the latitude has been introduced, that of reckoning by climates has been generally laid aside, as will be more fully seen in the following table:

Climate	Latitude.		Breadth.		Long. Day.		Names of Countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	M.	H.	M.	
1	8	25	8	52	12	30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coast in Africa; Malacca in the East-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the East-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, & Barbadoes in the W Indies
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christophers, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadalupe, in the West-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire in Asia; Gulph of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the West-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem; Isfahan capital of Persia; Nankin, in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Lisbon in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamsburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Bolton in New England, North America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna capital of Germany; New-Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North-America.

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Latitude.	Breadth		Long. Day.		Names of Countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the Equator.
	D. M.	D. M.	H. M.	H. M.	
52	00	2	57	16 30	X. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden; Cracow in Poland; southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
54	27	2	29	17	XI. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warsaw in Poland; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in North America.
56	37	2	10	17 30	XII. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow capital of Russia.
58	29	1	52	18	XIII. South part of Sweden; Tobolski capital of Siberia.
59	58	1	29	18 30	XIV. Orkney Isles, Stockholm capital of Sweden.
61	18	1	20	19	XV. Bergin in Norway; Peterburgh in Russia.
62	25	1	7	19 30	XVI. Hudson's Straits, North America.
63	22		57	20	XVII. Siberia, and the south part of West Greenland.
64	06		44	20 30	XVIII. Drontheim, in Norway.
64	49		43	21	XIX. Part of Finland, in Russia.
65	21		32	21 30	XX. Archangel on the White Sea, Russia.
66	47		22	22	XXI. Hecla in Iceland.
66	20		19	22 30	XXII. Northern parts of Russia and Siberia.
66	28		14	23	XXIII. New North Wales, in North America.
66	31		8	23 30	XXIV. Davis's Straits, in ditto.
67	21		3	24	XXV. Samoieda.
67	21		1	Month	XXVI. South part of Lapland.
69	48		2	Months	XXVII. West-Greenland.
73	37		3	Months	XXVIII. Zembla Australis.
78	30		4	Months	XXIX. Zembla Borealis.
84	05		5	Months	XXX. Spitzbergen or East Greenland.
90			6	Months	XXXI. Unknown.

SECTION IV.

THE DOCTRINE OF THE SPHERE. THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE WORLD EXPLAINED.

Definitions and Principles.

In order to render the following definitions more easy to be conceived, it may be proper to remark, that both the celestial and terrestrial sphere is supposed to be concentric to the centre of the earth, and to have correspondent circles described on both spheres, and these circles are either greater or lesser.

1. Great circles are those which divide either the celestial or terrestrial sphere into two equal parts.

Lesser circles are those which divide the sphere into two unequal parts.

The poles of any circle are those points on the surface of the sphere equally distant from that circle. Every circle, whether great or small, has two poles, or centres, and from which all arches drawn to the circumference are equal.

The axis of any circle is a right line supposed to connect the poles.

The celestial axis is that right line about which the heavens seem to revolve; and the two points where this axis cuts the celestial sphere, are called the north and south poles of the world.

The equinoctial, or equator, is that great circle of the sphere which is every where equally distant from the poles of the world; and consequently divides the heavens into two equal parts. It is so called, because when the sun appears to describe this circle, the days and nights are of an equal length to all the inhabitants of the earth.

The meridians, hour-circles, circles of right ascension, or circles of terrestrial longitude, are those great circles which intersect each other in the poles of the world, and cut the equinoctial at right angles.

The zodiac is a circle of 47 degrees broad, which cuts the equator or equinoctial at an angle of 23 degrees 29 minutes, the sun's greatest declination. In the middle of this circle is supposed another, which is called the ecliptic: it is generally divided into twelve equal parts called signs, beginning from one of its intersections with the equinoctial. Each sign contains 30 degrees, which, with their correspondent months, are noted in the following manner:

1. Aries ♈	— —	March	7. Libra ♎	— —	September
2. Taurus ♉	— —	April	8. Scorpio ♏	— —	October
3. Gemini ♊	— —	May	9. Sagittarius ♐	— —	November
4. Cancer ♋	— —	June	10. Capricorn ♑	— —	December
5. Leo ♌	— —	July	11. Aquarius ♒	— —	January
6. Virgo ♍	— —	August	12. Pisces ♓	— —	February.

The first six are called northern, and the latter southern signs; because the former possess that half of the ecliptic which lies to the northward of the equinoctial, and the latter that half which lies to the southward.

The cardinal points of the ecliptic are the four first points of the signs Aries, Cancer, Libra and Capricornus. Those of Aries and Libra are called equinoctial points, and those of Cancer and Capricornus solstitial points.

The two meridians that pass through those four points have particular names; that which passes through the points Aries and Libra is called the equinoctial colure, and that which passes through the points Cancer and Capricorn is termed the solstitial colure. These colures cut each other at right angles in the poles of the world.

Circles of longitude in the heavens, are great circles of the sphere imagined to pass through the poles of the ecliptic, and to cut the ecliptic at right angles, as the meridians do the equinoctial.

The latitude of any heavenly object is an arch of a circle of longitude, intercepted between the centre of the object and the ecliptic. If the object is on the north side of the ecliptic, it is said to be in north latitude; if on the south, in south latitude.

Parallels of celestial latitude, are small circles drawn parallel to the ecliptic.

The longitude of any heavenly object is an arch of the ecliptic, intercepted between the first point of Aries and a circle of longitude passing through the centre of the object.

The right ascension of any heavenly object is an arch of the equinoctial, intercepted between the first point of Aries, and a meridian passing through the centre of the object.

The declination of any heavenly object is an arch of the meridian, intercepted between the centre of the object and the equinoctial. If the object is on the north side of the equinoctial, it is said to have north declination; if on the south side, it has south declination.

All small circles in the celestial sphere parallel to the equinoctial, are called parallels of declination. Among these are the tropic of Cancer, the tropic of Capricorn, the arctic and antarctic circles.

The tropic of Cancer is a parallel of celestial declination twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes, or nearly twenty-three degrees and a half to the northward of the equinoctial.

The tropic of Capricorn is a parallel of declination twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes to the southward of the equinoctial.

The arctic circle, or northern polar circle, is a parallel of declination twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes distant from the north pole.

The antarctic circle, or southern polar circle, is a parallel of declination twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes from the south pole.

The zenith is that point in the heavens directly over the head of the spectator, or place on the earth; and the nadir is the point directly underneath. The zenith and nadir are the two poles of the horizon.

The azimuths, or vertical circles, are great circles passing through the zenith and nadir, and cutting the horizon at right angles.

The altitude of an heavenly object, is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the centre of the object and the horizon.

The zenith distance of any heavenly object, is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the centre of the object and the zenith.

The meridian altitude, or meridian zenith distance, is the altitude, or zenith distance, when the object is in the meridian.

A parallel sphere is that position of the sphere wherein the circles, described by the apparent diurnal rotation of the heavenly bodies, are parallel to the horizon. This can only happen at the poles. In a parallel sphere, the equinoctial coincides with the horizon, one of the poles with the zenith, and the other with the nadir.

A right sphere is that wherein the diurnal motions are at right angles to the horizon. This is common to all places situated under the equinoctial. In a right sphere, the two poles are in the horizon.

An oblique sphere is that where all the diurnal motions are oblique to the horizon. This is common to all parts of the earth, except those under the poles and equator. In an oblique sphere, one of the poles is elevated above, and the other depressed below the horizon.

OF THE SEVERAL ASTRONOMICAL SYSTEMS OF THE WORLD.

By the word System is meant an hypothesis or supposition of a certain order and arrangement of the several parts of the universe, by which astronomers explain all the phenomena or appearances of the heavenly bodies, their motions, changes, &c. The most famous systems, or hypotheses, are the Ptolemaic, the Tychonic, or Brahean, and the Pythagorean, or Copernican system.

THE PTOLEMAIC SYSTEM.

This system, so called from its inventor Claudius Ptolemæus, a celebrated astronomer of Pelusium, in Egypt, supposes the earth immoveably fixed in the centre of the universe; and that the moon, the planets, and the stars, all move round it from east to west, once in twenty-four hours, in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed stars. These were all supposed to be fixed in separate crystalline spheres, and to be included in another, called the primum mobile, which gives motion to all the rest.

This system owed its origin to the sensible appearances of the celestial motions. It was taken for granted, that the motions which those bodies appeared to possess, were real; and not dreaming of any motion in the earth, nor being acquainted with the distinctions between absolute, relative, or apparent motion, the philosophers were incapable of forming adequate ideas of these particulars, and thence reduced to the

122. 122. 122.

necessity of being misled by their own senses, for want of that assistance which afterwards produced. It is easy to observe, they had no notion of any other system but our own, nor of any other world but the earth on which we live. They were persuaded that all things were made for the use of man; that all the stars were contained in one concave sphere, and, consequently, at an equal distance from the earth; and that the primum mobile was circumscribed by the empyrean heaven, of a cubic form, which they supposed to be the blissful abode of departed spirits. But modern observations and discoveries have sufficiently shewn the absurdity of this system, so that it is now abandoned by all the learned, and hardly ever mentioned but to be exploded. Even in the infancy of astronomy, it was found insufficient to account for all the motions of the heavenly bodies, without having recourse to such absurd suppositions, that a novice in literature would be ashamed to propose. *See p. 10*

THE BRAHEAN SYSTEM.

Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of the most eminent astronomers of his time, proposed another system to account for the motion of the heavenly bodies. Unwilling to admit of the motion of the earth, and convinced that the Ptolemaic hypothesis could not be true, he contrived another, different from any thing before offered to the world. In this hypothesis, the earth is supposed to be at rest in the centre of the universe, and the sun, together with the planets and fixed stars, revolved about the earth in twenty-four hours; and at the same time all the planets, except the moon, revolve about the sun. But this was even more absurd than that of Ptolemy, and accordingly was soon exploded. We have given a representation of this system, See the Plate.

THE COPERNICAN, OR TRUE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Copernicus, the author of this System, was born at Thorn, in Royal Prussia, in 1473. This hypothesis, which is now universally adopted by all the learned in Europe, supposes the sun to be in the centre of the system, and that all the planets move round him in the following order: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, attended by her secondary, the Moon; Mars, Jupiter, Saturn. These, together with the comets, form the constituent parts of the solar system. See Plate, where this system is represented, and by which an adequate idea of the whole may be easily obtained.

But it must be observed, that, though the orbits of the planets are circles in the scheme, they are not really so, but ellipses, and the sun placed in one of the focus's. All the planets have one common focus, in which the sun is placed. This supposition readily solves all the appearances observable in the motion of the planets, and also agrees with the strictest philosophical and mathematical reasoning.

All the planets, in their revolutions, are sometimes nearer to, and sometimes farther from, the sun; a consequence of that luminary's not being placed in the centre of each orbit, and their being ellipses. Hence, also, we see the reason why the planets move faster as they approach nearer to the sun, and slower as they recede from the sun.

If a right line, called by some the vector radius, be drawn from the sun through any planet, and supposed to revolve round the sun with the planet, this line will describe, or pass over every part of the plane of the orbit; so that the vector radius may be said to describe the area of the orbit.

In the solar system are observed two principal laws, which regulate the motions of all the planets. These laws are the following:

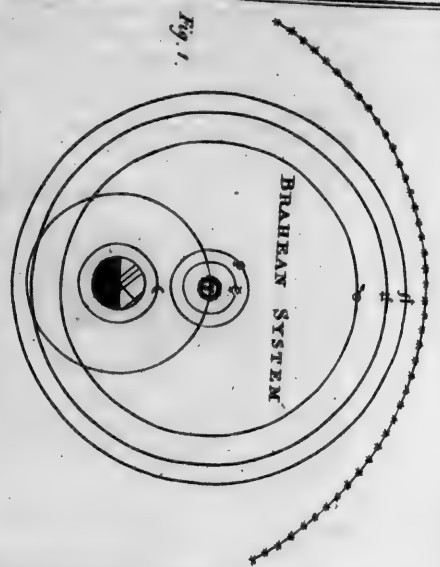


Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

COPERNICAN SYSTEM



See page 46.

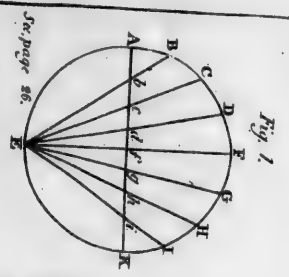


Fig. 1.

See page 36.

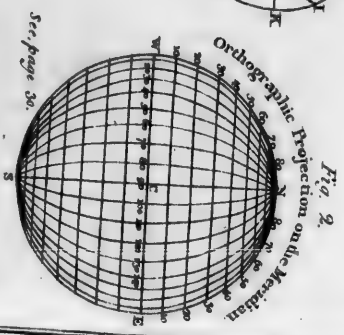


Fig. 2.

See page 36.

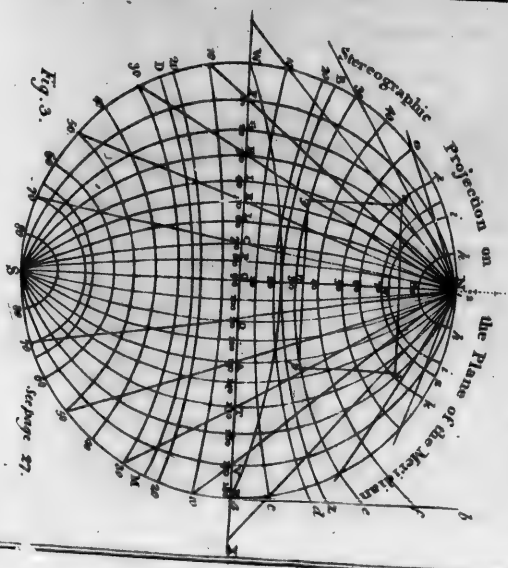
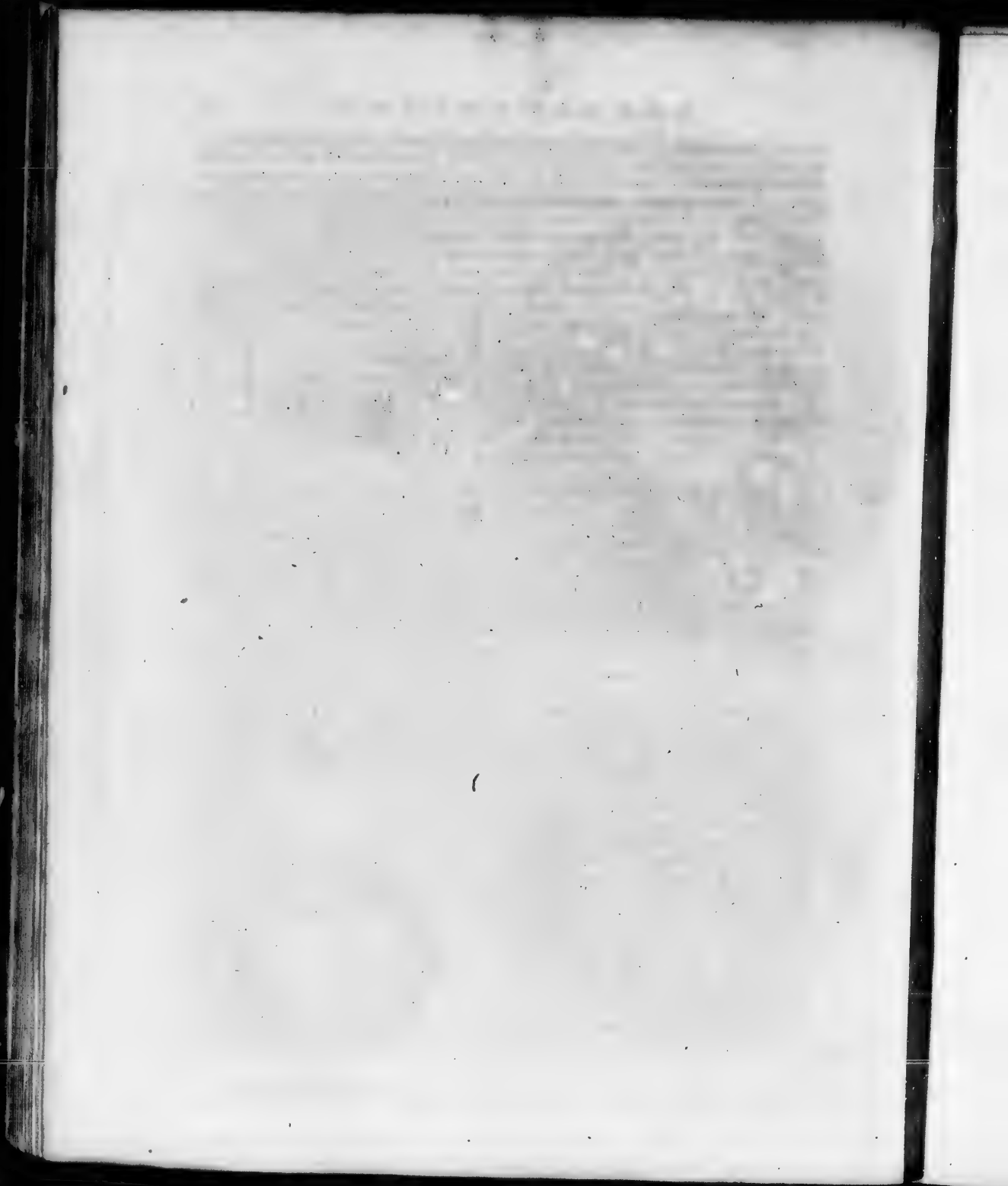


Fig. 3.

See page 27.

See page 27.



1. "The planets describe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, describes equal areas or portions of the space contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The squares of the periodical times of the planets are as their mean distances from the sun." That is, as the square of the time which any planet takes to describe its orbit, is to the square of the time taken by any other planet to run through its orbit; so is the cube of the mean distance of the former from the sun, to the cube of the mean distance of the latter from the sun.

These are the two famous laws of Kepler, a great astronomer, who flourished about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of observations; but the first who demonstrated these laws, was the incomparable Sir Isaac Newton.

By the second law, the relative distances of the planets from the sun are known; and were the real distance of any one of them determined, the absolute distances of all the others would be obtained. By the transit of Venus over the sun in 1761, we now know the real distances of the planets from the sun much better than before: these, together with the other necessary particulars for forming a competent idea of the solar system, are exhibited in the following table:

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun as determined from observations of the transit of Venus in 1761.	Annual periods round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
Sun	890,000			d. h. m.			
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	y. d. h. 25 6 0	0 87 23	unknown.	38.8	8° 0'
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	109,699	unknown.	unknown.
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	80,295	43	75° 0'
Moon	2,180	ditto.	1 0 0	0 12 44	68,243	1,042	23° 29'
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	22,290	94	2° 10'
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	55,287	556	0° 0'
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	22 167 6	unknown.	29,083	25,920	0° 0'
					22,101	unknown.	unknown.

By the above table, a competent idea of the solar system may be obtained. Besides the planets and stars mentioned above, we perceive, in the expanse of the universe, many other bodies belonging to the system of the sun, that seem to have much more irregular motions. These are the *comets*, that, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move

about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at least 21 comets belonging to our system, moving in all manner of directions; and all those which have been observed have moved through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions, which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490 thousand miles; within less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit, which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; or above 244 miles in a second: a velocity much greater than any we are acquainted with, that of light excepted; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination, the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of astronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to those of the great Sir Isaac Newton on this subject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet last passed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always pass by us with so little effect; for it may be here observed, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: so that, in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable, if not fatal, effects upon it.

The fixed stars, though they do not constitute a part of the solar system, must be considered here, as they are of infinite use in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets, by their continual exhibiting that appearance we call the twinkling of the stars. They are observed never to change their situations with respect to each other, and hence they obtained the name of fixed stars: they shine by their own light; and there is the greatest reason to think they are suns fixed in the centres of other systems, having planets and comets revolving round them like our sun. They appear of various sizes, owing to their different distances; those sizes are generally distinguished into six or seven classes, called magnitudes; the largest and brightest are said to be of the first magnitude; those of the next class, or degree of brightness, are called stars of the second magnitude, and so on to the last, or those just visible to the naked eye. But besides these, there are scattered in every part of heaven, a prodigious number of others, called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Great part of the modern astronomy, indeed, owes both its rise and perfection to that admirable machine. The distance between the earth and the nearest fixed star is astonishing: the orbit of the earth is at least 162 millions of miles in diameter; yet this prodigious difference has no effect on the distance of the star, which appears as far from the earth when in the nearest, as in the farthest point of its orbit. It has been computed, by some of the most able astro-

1680
575
11265

nomers, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the same velocity as when first discharged from the piece, it would not reach the nearest fixed star in less than 700,000 years: the distance therefore is too great for the power of human beings to conceive; the understanding is bewildered and lost in the contemplation.

But though the fixed stars are placed at such immense distances from us, and from each other, and are doubtless suns illuminating different worlds; yet astronomers, in order to facilitate their computations, consider them as all equally distant from our sun, forming the surface of a sphere, inclosing our system, and called the celestial sphere: a supposition which may be strictly admitted, considering the astonishing distance of the nearest fixed star.

A constellation is a number of stars which appear to lie in the neighbourhood of one another on the surface of the celestial sphere, and which astronomers, for their easy remembrance, suppose to be circumscribed with the outlines of some animal or other figure, whereby the motion of the planets is more readily described and computed. These constellations are eighty in number; twelve of which are in the zodiac, thirty-six in the northern, and thirty-two in the southern hemisphere. The number of stars in the whole amounts to two thousand eight hundred and forty-three, of which twenty of the first, sixty-five of the second, two hundred and five of the third, four hundred and eighty-five of the fourth, six hundred and forty-eight of the fifth, and one thousand four hundred and twenty of the sixth magnitude.

These stars, by not altering their situation in respect to one another, serve astronomers as fixed points, whereby the motions of other bodies may be compared; and, accordingly, their relative positions have been sought after with the most assiduous care, during many ages, and catalogues of the observations have, from time to time, been published, by those who have been at the pains to make them. Among these, the most copious, and at the same time the most accurate, is that called the *Historia Cœlestis* of Mr. Flamsteed.

The ancient Egyptian priests, to whom the Greeks owed all their philosophical learning, are supposed to have been the first acquainted with the true system of the world; Pythagoras learned it in Egypt, and taught it to his disciples, after his return to Europe. But it was so totally forgotten during the ages of ignorance, that when Copernicus, a celebrated astronomer, revived it, in the fifteenth century, he was considered as the author, rather than the restorer. Some of the learned immediately adopted the hypothesis, and it would probably soon have been universally received, had it not met with a formidable opposition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy. Nursed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies to every species of free and impartial enquiry, they condemned the Copernican system under pretence of its being repugnant to the sacred writings. The thunder of the Vatican was employed to silence the voice of reason, and the dread of ecclesiastical censures almost deterred mankind from thinking. At last, the reformation in religion gave a fatal blow to superstitious tyranny; the rays of learning broke through the night of ignorance, and genuine philosophy triumphed over the chicanery of the schools: mankind were now convinced, that the scriptures were never intended to explain the systems of philosophy, but to make us humane, virtuous, and happy; that it is agreeable to the Great Author of our being to contemplate his works, and display the wonders of his creating hand. From this fortunate æra the sciences made rapid strides towards perfection, and every day produced a discovery of some new truth, or the detection of some ancient error. Proofs were multiplied in confirmation of the Copernican system, which is now established on a foundation not to be shaken. The astonishing harmony which prevails among the several parts prove it to have been the work of

a divine hand; and that nothing less than infinite Wisdom could have planned so beautiful a fabric.

The limits we are confined to, will not admit of our multiplying proofs to establish the Copernican system; the following therefore only will be added; but these, if there were no other, would be more than sufficient for the purpose.

1. The planets, Mercury and Venus, are always observed to have two conjunctions with the sun, but no opposition: this could not happen, unless their orbits were circumscribed by that of the earth.

2. Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn have each their conjunctions and oppositions to the sun, alternately and successively, which they could not have, unless their orbs were exterior to that of the earth.

3. The greatest elongation or distance of Mercury from the sun is about twenty degrees, and that of Venus forty-seven degrees; which answers exactly to their distance in the Copernican system: but according to the Ptolemaic, they must often be seen in opposition to him, or at 180 degrees distant.

4. In this disposition of the planets, they will all of them be sometimes much nearer to the earth than at others; the consequence of which is, that their brightness and splendor, as well as their apparent diameters, will be proportionally greater at one time than at another; and this we observe to be true every day. Thus, the apparent diameter of Venus, when greatest, is near sixty-six seconds; when least, not more than nine seconds and an half: that of Mars, when greatest, is twenty-one seconds; when least, only two and an half. But if the Ptolemaic hypothesis be true, they must always be equal.

5. All the planets sometimes appear in direct motion; sometimes stationary, and sometimes retrograde. These appearances must happen according to the Copernican system, but are absolutely repugnant to any other.

6. The bodies of Mercury and Venus, in their lower conjunction with the sun, pass behind the body of that luminary, and in the upper conjunction, are seen to transit or pass over his disk, in the form of a round black spot. These phenomena are necessary in the Copernican system, but impossible in that of Ptolemy.

7. The times in which these conjunctions, oppositions, stations, and retrogradations of the planets happen, are not such as they would be, were the earth at rest in the centre; but precisely such as would happen, if the earth and all the planets move about the sun, in the order, and with the velocities assigned them in the Copernican system. Consequently this, and no other, can be the true system of the world.

S E C T I O N V.

THE MOTION OF THE EARTH MORE PARTICULARLY CONSIDERED. THE VICISSITUDES OF THE SEASONS, AND THE VARIOUS LENGTHS OF THE DAYS AND NIGHTS, EXPLAINED.

HAVING explained the true system of the world, in which the earth forms one of the planets, and revolves about the sun, in an orbit between Venus and Mars, it remains to consider the motion of the earth more particularly. The earth, like the rest of the planets, has two motions, one round its axis, the other round the sun. The former is performed in twenty-four hours, and causes the different appearances of day and night; the latter is finished in a year, and occasions the vicissitudes of the seasons.

Every globe, revolving on its axis, must have on its surface, at the extremities of that axis, two points, which do not appear to move at all: these points are called the poles, and have been already defined.

The motion of the earth round its axis is from west to east, and consequently the heavenly bodies appear to move from east to west; and as the former is performed in twenty-four hours, so the latter appears to be completed in the same time; and all the celestial objects seem to describe circles in the heavens, which are greater or less, according as they are nearer to or farther from the centre of those motions, that is, from the two poles of the world: and as they all appear to finish their revolutions in the same time, their motions will be slower in proportion to the smallness of the circle they describe.

As the sun's rays falling on a globe enlighten only one half of its surface, therefore, only one half of the earth is illuminated at one time. Consequently, the enlightened parts are terminated by a great circle, perpendicular to the sun's rays, or line that connects the centres of the sun and earth: this circle, from its property of terminating the illuminated hemisphere, is called the terminator. Now as the earth revolves about its axis once in twenty-four hours, there will be a constant succession of light in all parts, as they are turned towards the sun; and of darkness in these parts as they move out of its rays: and hence arise the vicissitudes of day and night.

If the plane of the equator coincided with the ecliptic, or orbit in which the earth moves round the sun, and consequently the axis of the earth stood perpendicular to it, the terminator would always pass through the poles of the earth, and there would be a constant equality of day and night in every part of its surface, except the two poles, where there would be continual day. But this is not the case; the earth's axis is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, in an angle of sixty-six degrees thirty-one minutes; therefore, the poles of the ecliptic and equator are twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes distant from one another. Consequently the ecliptic and equinoctial, which in the heavens intersect each other in the opposite points of Aries and Libra, make angles at those intersections, of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes: this angle is called the obliquity of the ecliptic.

From this inclination of the axis of the earth to the plane of the ecliptic, and its moving parallel to itself in all points of its annual orbit, the vicissitudes of the seasons, and the various lengths of the days and nights result. In order to render this more easy to be conceived, it will be necessary to observe, that the sun will appear vertical to that part of the earth, which is cut by a strait line, joining the centers of the sun and earth.

Now, when the earth is in Capricornus, the sun will appear in Cancer, and consequently, seem vertical to that point of the terrestrial ecliptic, it lying in the right line joining the sun and earth; and this point being in the earth's northern hemisphere, all those who live on that half of the globe will enjoy summer, as the hottest season of the year; because the solar rays fall more copiously and more perpendicularly upon their hemisphere at that time.

On the contrary, the inhabitants of the southern hemisphere will then have winter, the rays of the sun falling more obliquely, and in less quantity on them, and consequently affording them less heat.

For the same reason, the inhabitants of the northern hemisphere will have their days longer than their nights, in proportion as they are more distant from the equator; those who reside under that circle will have an equal share of day and night all the year round; and those who live in the northern temperate zone will enjoy perpetual day. On the contrary, those who live in the southern hemisphere will have their

nights longer than their days; and those in the southern frigid zone will have continual night.

When the earth is in Aries, or Libra, the days and nights will be equal in both hemispheres, and the seasons will be a medium between summer and winter: and because the rays of the sun then fall perpendicularly upon the axis of the earth, they must fall with equal obliquity, and in equal quantity, upon either hemisphere; consequently they must enjoy an equal degree of heat and cold.

When the earth is in Cancer, the sun will appear in Capricornus, or in its nearest approach to the south pole; so that at this time of the year it will be winter in the northern hemisphere: for the same phenomena will now happen in that half of the globe, as before occurred in the southern, when the sun appeared in Cancer.

And as the sun appears gradually to move through all the signs in a year, the four seasons will continually succeed one another; the summer will follow the spring, the autumn the summer, and the winter the autumn.

The four points of the ecliptic, wherein the earth has been considered, are called the four cardinal points; Capricornus and Cancer are called the solstitial points; Libra and Aries the equinoctial points. The first point of Cancer is called the summer solstice; because when the sun appears in that point, which happens about the twenty-first of June, he has then reached his greatest extent northwards; and being about to return towards the equator, he seems, for a day or two, to be at a stand. For the same reason the first point of Capricorn, which the sun enters about the twenty-first of December, is called the winter solstice, with respect to the northern hemisphere. The first points of Aries and Libra are called the vernal and autumnal equinoctial points; because, when the sun is in either of these points, the day and nights are equal on all parts of the earth's surface. The sun enters the former about the twentieth of March, and the season is called spring; and the latter about the twentieth of September, and the season is called autumn.

S E C T. VI.

THE USE OF THE GLOBES.

A globe is a solid body, formed by the rotation of a semi-circle about its axis: but by the globes here are meant two spherical bodies, whose convex surfaces are supposed to give a true representation of the earth and heavens, as visible by observation. One of these is called the terrestrial, and the other the celestial globe. The principle circles of the sphere are either drawn or represented on the surface of both globes.

On the convex surface of the terrestrial globe, all the parts of the earth and sea are delineated in their relative size, form, and situation.

On the surface of the celestial globe, the images of the several constellations and stars are delineated; and the relative magnitude and position which the stars are observed to have in the heavens, carefully preserved.

In order to render these globular bodies more useful, they are fitted up with certain appurtenances, whereby a great variety of useful problems are solved in a very easy and expeditious manner.

The brazen meridian is that ring or hoop in which the globe hangs on its axis, which is represented by two wires passing through its poles. The circle is divided into four quarters of 90 deg. each; in one semi-circle the divisions begin at each pole, and end at 90 degrees, where they meet. In the other semicircle, the divisions begin at the mid-

dle, and proceed thence towards each pole, where they end at 90 degrees. The graduated side of this brazen circle serves as a meridian for any point on the surface of the earth, the globe being turned about till that point comes under the circle.

The hour circle is a small circle of brass, divided into twenty-four hours, the quarters, and half quarters. It is fixed on the brazen meridian, equally distant from the north end of the axis; to which is fixed an index, that points out the divisions of the hour-circle as the globe is turned round its axis.

The horizon is represented by the upper surface of the wooden circular frame encompassing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in several concentric circles: the inner one is divided into four quarters of ninety degrees each; the next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new stile; the next contains the twelve equal signs of the zodiac, each being divided into thirty degrees; the next is the twelve months and days according to the old stile; and there is another circle containing the thirty-two winds, with their halves and quarters. Although these circles are on all horizons, yet they are not always placed in the same disposition.

The quadrant of altitude is a thin slip of brass, one edge of which is graduated into ninety degrees and their quarters, equal to those of the meridian. To one end of this is fixed a brass nut and screw, whereby it is put on, and fastened to the meridian: if it be fixed in the zenith or pole of the horizon, then the graduated edge represents a vertical circle passing through any point.

Besides these, there are several circles described on the surfaces of both globes, such as the equinoctial, ecliptic, circles of longitude and right ascension, the tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude and declination, on the celestial globe; and on the terrestrial, the equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude, hour circles, or meridians to every fifteen degrees; and, on some globes, the spiral rhumbs flowing from the several centres, called flies.

With the help of these appurtenances, a prodigious variety of problems may be readily solved. The following are selected as the most useful and the most general.

PROBLEM I. *To find the Latitude and Longitude of any Place on the Terrestrial Globe.*

BRING the given place under that side of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, by turning the globe about; then the degree of the meridian over it shews the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, shews the longitude.

Thus Bristol will be found to lie in fifty-one degrees twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and two degrees thirty minutes west longitude; and Dublin in fifty-one degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and six degrees fifty-five minutes west longitude.

PROBLEM II. *To find any Place on the Globe whose Latitude and Longitude are given.*

BRING the given longitude, found on the equator, to the meridian, and under the given latitude found on the meridian, is the place sought.

PROBLEM III. *To find the Distance and Bearing of any two given Places on the Globe.*

LAY the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places; the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them shew their distance; these degrees multiplied by sixty, give geographical miles, and, by sixty-nine and a half, give the distance in English miles nearly. Observe, while the

quadrant lies in this position; what rhumb of the nearest fly runs mostly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb shews nearly the bearing required.

PROBLEM IV. *To find the Sun's Place and Declination on any Day.*

SEEK the given day in the circle of months on the horizon; and right against it, in the circle of signs, is the sun's place; by which means it will be found, that the sun enters Aries, March 20; Taurus, April 20; Gemini, May 21; Cancer, June 21; Leo, July 23; Virgo, August 23; Libra, September 22; Scorpio, October 23; Sagittar, November 22; Capricorn, December 21; Aquarius, January 20; Pisces, February 18.

Then seek the sun's place in the ecliptic on the globe, bring that place to the meridian, and the division it stands under is the sun's declination on the given day.

The ecliptic is readily distinguished from the equator on the globes, not only by the different colours wherewith they are stained, but also by the ecliptic's approaching towards the poles, after its intersection with the equator. The marks of the signs are also placed along the ecliptic, one at the beginning of every successive thirty degrees.

PROBLEM V. *To rectify the Globe for the Latitude, Zenith, and Noon.*

SET the globe upon an horizontal plane, with its parts answering to those of the world; move the meridian in its notches, by raising or depressing the pole, until the degrees of latitude cut the horizon; then is the globe rectified for the latitude. Reckon the latitude from the equator towards the elevated pole, then screw the bevil edge of the nut belonging to the quadrant of altitude, and the rectification is made for the zenith: bring the sun's place, found by the last problem, to the meridian; set the index to the xii at noon, or upper xii, and the globe is rectified for the sun's southing, or noon.

PROBLEM VI. *To find where the Sun is vertical at any given Time.*

BRING the sun's place, found for the given day, in the manner directed by the fourth problem, to the meridian; note the degree over it, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the index comes to xii at noon, when the place under the said noted degree has the sun in the zenith at that time, and all the places that pass under that degree, by turning the globe round, will have the sun vertical to them on that day.

PROBLEM VII. *To find what Days the Sun will be vertical at any given Place in the Torrid Zone.*

NOTE the latitude of the given place on the meridian; turn the globe, and note what points of the ecliptic pass under the latitude noted on the meridian. Seek those points of the ecliptic in the circle of signs on the horizon, and right against them in the circle of months stand the days required.

In this manner it will be found, that the sun will be vertical to the island of St. Helena on the sixth of November, and on the fourth of February. And at Barbadoes on the twenty-fourth of April, and the eighteenth of August.

PROBLEM VIII. *At any given Hour in a given Place, to find what Hour it is in any other Place.*

BRING the place where the time is given to the meridian, and set the index to

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the given hour. Then bring the other given place to the meridian, and the index shews the hour corresponding to the given time.

PROBLEM IX. *At any given Time, to find all those Places of the Earth where the Sun is then rising or setting; where mid-day, or mid-night.*

FIND the place where the sun is vertical at the given time, according to the sixth problem, rectify the globe for the latitude of that place, and bring it to the meridian. Then all those places that are in the west half of the horizon, have the sun rising; and those in the eastern half have it setting. Those under the meridian above the horizon have the sun culminating, or noon; and those under the meridian below the horizon, have midnight. Those above the horizon have day; those below it have night.

PROBLEM X. *To find the Angle of Position of two Places; or, the Angle made by the Meridian of one Place, and a great Circle passing through both Places.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude of one of the given places, and bring it to the meridian; there fix the quadrant of altitude, and set its graduated edge to the other place: then will that edge of the quadrant cut the horizon in the degree of position sought.

Thus, the angle of position at the Land's End to Barbadoes is south 71 degrees 30 minutes westerly: but the angle of position at Barbadoes to the Land's End is north 37 degrees 30 minutes easterly.

Hence neither of these positions can be the true bearing by the compass; for the rhumb passing through both places, will be opposite one way to what it is the other.

PROBLEM XI. *The Latitude of any Place, not within the Polar Circle, being given; to find the Time of Sun rising and setting, and the Length of the Day and Night.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude and the noon; bring the sun's place to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index shews the time of rising. The sun's place brought to the western side of the horizon, the index gives the setting; or the time of rising taken from twelve hours gives the time of setting. The time of setting being doubled, gives the length of the day; and the time of rising being doubled, gives the length of the night. Thus at London, on the fifteenth of April, the day is thirteen hours and a half; the night ten and a half.

PROBLEM XII. *To find the Length of the longest and shortest Days in any given Place.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude: bring the solstitial point of that hemisphere to the eastern part of the horizon, set the index to twelve at noon; turn the globe till the solstitial point comes to the western side of the horizon: the hours past over by the index give the length of the longest day, or night; and its complement to twenty-four hours, gives the length of the shortest night, or day.

PROBLEM XIII. *A Place being given in the Frigid or Frozen Zone, to find the Time when the Sun begins to appear at, or depart from, that Place: also how many successive Days he is present to, or absent from, that Place.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude, turn the globe, and observe what degrees in the first and second quadrants of the ecliptic are cut by the north point of the hori-

zon, the latitude being supposed north. Then find those degrees in the circle of signs on the horizon, and their corresponding days of the month, and all the time between those days the sun will not set in that place.

Again. Observe what degree in the third and fourth quadrants of the ecliptic will be cut by the south point of the horizon, and the days answering. Then the sun will be quite absent from the given place during the intermediate days; that day in the third quadrant, shews when the sun begins to disappear, and that in the fourth quadrant, shews when he begins to shine in the place proposed.

Thus, at the North Cape, in latitude seventy-one degrees North, the sun never sets from the fifteenth of May to the twenty-eighth of July, which is seventy-four days; and never rises from the sixteenth of November to the twenty-fourth of January, which is sixty-nine days.

PROBLEM XIV. *To find the Antæci, Periæci, and Antipodes of any Place.*

N. B. The Antæci are those who live under the same meridian, and in the same degrees of latitude, but of different denominations. The Periæci, are those who live in the same latitude, and of the same denomination, but under opposite meridians, or whose difference of longitude is 180 degrees. The Antipodes are those who live diametrically opposite to one another. They lie under opposite meridians and opposite parallels of latitude. These particulars being considered, the problem is easily solved in the following manner.

Bring the given place to the meridian; tell as many degrees of latitude on the contrary side of the equator, and it gives the place of the Antæci.

The given place being under the meridian, set the index to twelve at noon, turn the globe till the index points to twelve at night, and the point under the meridian in the given latitude, is the place of the Periæci.

The globe remaining in this position, seek on the contrary side the equator, for the degrees of latitude given, and the point under the meridian thus found, will be the Antipodes to the given place.

PROBLEM XV. *To find the Beginning and End of the Twilight in any Place.*

RECTIFY the globe, according to the instructions given in the fifth problem, for the latitude, zenith and noon. Then seek the point of the ecliptic opposite to the sun's place, turn the globe and quadrant of altitude, till the said point of the ecliptic stands against eighteen degrees of the quadrant of altitude; then will the index shew the beginning or end of the twilight: that is, the beginning in the morning, when these points meet in the western hemisphere; or the end in the evening, when the said points meet in the eastern hemisphere.

PROBLEM XVI. *The Latitude of a Place and the Day of the Month being given; to find the Sun's Declination, Meridian, Altitude, right Ascension, Amplitude, oblique Ascension, ascensional Difference, and thence the Time of Rising, Setting, and Length of the Day and Night.*

RECTIFY for the latitude and noon. Then the degree of the meridian over the sun's place is the declination.

The meridian altitude is shewn by the degrees the sun is above the horizon; and is equal to the sum or difference of the co-latitude and declination.

The sun's right ascension is the degree of the equator under the meridian.

Bring the sun's place to the eastern part of the horizon; then the amplitude is that degree of the horizon opposite the sun.

The oblique ascension is that degree of the equator cut by the horizon.

The ascensional difference is the difference between the right and oblique ascensions. The ascensional difference converted into time, will give the time the sun rises before or after the hour of fix, according as his amplitude is to the northward or southward of the east point of the horizon.

PROBLEM XVII. *Given the Latitude of the Place and Day of the Month: to find the Sun's Altitude either when he is due East or West, at Six o'Clock, or at any other Hour, while he is above the Horizon.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon; set the quadrant of altitude to the east point of the horizon; turn the globe, till the sun's place comes to the quadrant's edge: and it shews the altitude, his azimuth being now ninety degrees; and the index shews the hour.

Turn the globe till the index points at fix; there stay it, and move the quadrant till its edge cuts the sun's place; then the degree at the sun shews its altitude, and the degree cut by the quadrant in the horizon shews the azimuth, reckoning from the north.

In like manner, the globe being turned till the index is against any other hour, suppose ten in the forenoon, and the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude being turned to cut the sun's place, will give both the altitude and azimuth at that time.

PROBLEM XVIII. *Given the Latitude, Day of the Month, and Sun's Altitude; to find the azimuth and Hour of the Day.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon. Turn the globe and quadrant until the sun's place coincides with the graduated edge of the quadrant. Then will that edge of the quadrant cut in the horizon the degrees of azimuth, reckoned from the north; and the index will shew the hour of the day.

PROBLEM XIX. *To represent the Appearance of the Heavens at any Time in a given Place.*

RECTIFY the celestial globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon, and turn the globe till the index points at the given hour; then while those stars in the eastern half of the horizon are rising, those in the western are setting, and those in the meridian are culminating.

The quadrant being set to any given star, will shew its altitude, and at the same time its azimuth, reckoned in the horizon. Then by turning the globe round, it will readily appear what stars never set in that place, and those which never rise; those of perpetual apparition never go below the horizon, and those of perpetual absence never come above it.

PROBLEM XX. *To find the Latitude and Longitude of any Star.*

PUT the centre of the quadrant of altitude on the pole of the ecliptic, and its graduated edge on the given star; then the latitude is shewn by the degrees between the ecliptic and star; and the longitude is the degrees cut on the ecliptic by the quadrant.

PROBLEM XXI. *To find the Declination and right Ascension of a Star.*

BRING the star to the meridian, the degree over it is the declination; and the degree of the equator under the meridian is the right ascension.

PROBLEM XXII. *On any Day, and in any given Place; to find when a proposed Star rises, sets, or culminates.*

RECTIFY the globe for the latitude and noon: then bring the star to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index shews the time of its rising.

Turn the globe till the star comes to the meridian, and the index shews the time of its culminating; and in like manner when it sets, the time will be shewn by the index.

Its meridian altitude, oblique ascension and ascensional difference, are found in the same manner as for the sun. See the sixth problem.

S E C T I O N VII.

THE CONSTRUCTION, &c. OF MAPS.

A MAP is the representation of some part of the earth's surface delineated on a plane according to the laws of projection; for as the earth is of a globular form, no part of its spherical surface can be accurately exhibited on a plane.

Maps are either general or particular: general maps are such as give us a view of an entire hemisphere or half of the globe, and are projected upon the plane of some great circle, which terminates the projected hemisphere, and divides it from the other half of the globe, as the meridian, equator, or the horizon of some place: and from this circle the projection is said to be meridional, equatorial, or horizontal.

Particular maps are such as exhibit a part less than a hemisphere; such as maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, and South America; or of particular kingdoms, provinces, counties, or lesser districts.

There are two methods of projecting the circles in general maps, viz. Stereographic and Orthographic. In order to form an adequate idea of the construction of maps, we may imagine the globe on which the circles are delineated to be of thin glass, and that half of it is viewed at the same time. In taking this view, the eye may be conceived to be placed at different distances from the hemisphere to be projected. If the eye be conceived to be placed in some point of the surface of the sphere to view the concave of the opposite hemisphere, it is called the stereographic projection: if the eye be supposed to be placed at an infinite distance, it is called the orthographic projection.

In the stereographic projection the parts about the middle are contracted, being much less than those near the circumference, the reason of which will sufficiently appear from *plate 2. fig. 1.* where *A B C D F G H I K E* represents a sphere of glass, *A B C D F G H I K*, a meridian of the concave hemisphere to be projected, divided into eight equal parts; *E* the eye, and *A K* a transparent plane on which the meridian is to be projected. Then it is plain that the eye at *E* will see the point *B* in *b*, *C* in *c*, *D* in *d*, &c. That is, the arch *A B* will be projected into the right line *A b*, the arch *B C* into *b c*, &c. But though the arches *A B*, *B C*, *C D*, &c. are all equal, the projected arches *A b*, *b c*, *c d*, &c. are unequal, approximating towards each other as they approach towards the centre from the circumference. It is also evi-

dent that fd , de , cd , ba , are the semi-tangents of the quadrantal arch AF ; and that fg , gb , hi , ik , are the semi-tangents to the quadrant FK ; consequently, the distances between the meridians on the equator in a stereographic projection of one of the hemispheres on the plane of the meridian, are equal to those of the semi-tangents of the primitive or terminating circle of the projection.

Hence the following laws of stereographic projection may be easily understood.

1. The projected diameter of any circle subtends an angle at the eye equal to the distance of that circle from its nearest pole, taken on the sphere; and that angle is bisected by a right line joining the eye and that pole.
2. Any point of a sphere is projected at the distance of the tangent of half the arch intercepted between that point and the pole opposite to the eye, from the centre of the projection, the semi-diameter of the sphere being radius.
3. The angles made by two projected circles, are equal to the angle which these circles make on the sphere.
4. The distance between the poles of the primitive and an oblique circle is equal to the tangent of half the inclination of those circles; and the distance of their centres is equal to the tangent of their inclination, the semi-diameter of the primitive circle being radius.
5. If through any given point on the primitive circle, an oblique circle be described, then the centres of all other oblique circles passing through that point, will be in a right line drawn through the centre of the first oblique circle at right angles to a line passing through the centre of the primitive.
6. Equal arches of any two great circles of the sphere, will be intercepted between two other circles drawn through the remotest poles of those great circles.
7. If lines be drawn from the projected pole of any great circle, cutting the peripheries of the projected circle and plane of the projection, the intercepted arches of those circumferences are equal.
8. The radius of any small circle, whose plane is perpendicular to that of the primitive circle, is equal to the tangent of that lesser circle's distance from its pole; and the secant of that distance is equal to the distance of the centres of the primitive and lesser circle.

These rules will be abundantly sufficient for projecting maps stereographically upon the plane of any circle. One example will be enough for the purpose, which shall be one of the hemispheres projected on the plane of the meridian; as most of the maps are of this kind.

Open the compasses to the radius intended, and setting one foot in O (plate 2. fig. 3.) describe the primitive circle $NESW$, representing the first meridian; cross it with two diameters at right angles. Then will WOE represent the equator, W the west part, and E the east; and the other diameter NOS will be the meridian ninety degrees distance from the first; N the north, and S the south pole; and O the point where the eye is supposed to be placed.

Divide each quadrant of the primitive circle into nine equal parts, as in the lower semicircle in the figure. Then will these divisions shew the points where the parallels of latitude to every ten degrees cut the primitive circle. The equator WOE , will be here a right-line, and therefore must be divided by the line of semi-tangents adapted to the radius of the circle. But these divisions may also be found by projection in the following manner. Lay a rule from N , on each of the divisions of the meridian of either of the quadrants, as of SW , or SE , and draw lines from one to the other, and they will cut the equator in the points F , G , H , I , R , L , &c. the proper divisions of a right circle perpendicular to the plane of projection. But these divi-

sions are the semi-tangents of the primitive circle. It will be abundantly sufficient to divide one of the quadrants in this manner; because the divisions transferred from one side of the equator to the other, will give the points not only on the other side of that circle, but also on the meridian NOS, passing through the centre of projection. Thus the distance between O and P is equal to that between O and 100, and also to that between O and 10 on the meridian NOS; the same may be observed of all the rest. Thus are there three points found, through which the meridians and parallels are to pass, and may be drawn by that well-known problem in Geometry, for describing a circle, which shall pass through three given points. But it will be more convenient to find their centres in the following manner. When the distances between the meridians and the primitive circle do not exceed forty-five degrees, the centres of those on the west side will be found in the line OE, and those on the eastern side in the line OW. But the radii of these meridians are the tangents of their respective degrees, set off from the centre, and will therefore be found in the line OE, reckoning every second degree from the point O, for the centre of each degree from the point W. By the same proportion we must take every twentieth degree, or point from O, in the line GE, for centres of each tenth degree or point, from W, in the line WO. Thus Q will be the centre of F, R of G, and V of I. And these distances are equal to their respective tangents, set off from the centre. That is, the distance between F and O, is equal to the tangent of ten degrees set off from the centre; that between G and R equal to the tangent of twenty degrees, the radius being OW. The centres of the meridians on the eastern side OE, will be found in WO, in the same manner as before. But because the tangents of above forty-five degrees extend from the centre beyond the primitive circle, the diameter WE must be produced till they are of a sufficient length to receive the tangents; or, which is the same thing, till the lines drawn from N, through every ten degrees of the two upper quadrants, cut the diameter prolonged. Thus X will be the centre of K, OX being equal to the tangent of fifty degrees.

The three points through which the parallels of latitude being already marked on the primitive circles and the meridian NOS, their centres are found in the following manner. Lay off both ways from the centre O, on the axis NOS, produced at both extremities, the respective secants of the complements of the degrees laid on the primitive circle, and these points will be the respective centres of each parallel of latitude. Or, raise the perpendicular, or tangent line, ab , and from the centre O draw lines through the points where the parallels cut the primitive circle, till they intersect the tangent line, and these lines, or secants, will be the radii of the parallels of latitude. Thus if a line be drawn from the centre O, through the point where the parallel of 10 cuts the primitive circle, till it touches the tangent in c , and is transferred on the axis from O to i , it will give the centre of the parallel of eighty degrees, or b 80 b . In the same manner the distance Od , transferred to O 2 will give the centre of seventy degrees or i 70 i . Oc will be the radius of k 60 k ; and so of all the rest.

The tropics and polar circles are inserted, by setting off on each side of the equator and poles twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, as Z, B, M, D, and the circular arches drawn in the same manner as the parallels of latitude.

There are two methods of projecting the ecliptic; for if we suppose O to be the first point of Aries, and the eye to be in the equinoctial colure, it will be represented by a right-line drawn from the beginning of Cancer B, through the beginning of aries O, to the beginning of Capricorn M, and by transferring the divisions of the equator upon the ecliptic, it will be properly divided. But if the eye be supposed to be in the solstitial colure, it will become an oblique circle, and will cut the primitive

circle in the points W and E, and touch the tropic of Cancer, where that tropic is cut by the meridian, N O S.

The construction is now ready for inserting the places in the map, which may be readily done from a table of latitudes and longitudes; a very copious and accurate table of that kind will be found at the end of this Work.

The advantages of this projection are, 1. It very agreeably represents the hemisphere, intercepted between the two poles, with all the parts entire. 2. It shews the latitudes and longitudes of places, exactly as the globe itself.

Its defects are, 1. That the degrees of the equator, meridians and parallels, except those of the first meridian, encrease gradually, the nearer they approach the first, or prime meridian; and consequently the parts near the centre O are much less than they are on the globe; and in the same manner, the places about the pole bear an unequal proportion to those nearer the equator. 2. The course and distance between places cannot be found either with ease or exactness in this projection.

If a map of any particular part of the earth less than a hemisphere should be required, you may make the projection proportional to the extent of the map you intend to draw, and then cut out so much of it as is terminated by the greatest degree of longitude and latitude of the country to be delineated on the projection. Suppose for instance you would draw a map of Europe according to this construction. Through the points where the greater and lesser latitudes of Europe, viz. seventy-two degrees and thirty-four degrees cut N O, draw lines parallel to the equator; and because in the common maps, Europe includes ninety-three degrees of longitude, therefore set off ninety-three degrees of longitude, viz. forty-six degrees thirty minutes from *n* to *g*, and from *n* to *p*, and draw *g p* equal to ninety-three degrees, the extent of Europe in longitude, then erect perpendiculars on the points *g* and *p* to render your map of a rectangular form, or, to save that trouble, set off *n g* from *g* to *r*, and from *q* to *t*, and cut out your map. It will however render your construction more convenient and useful, if you allow room on each side for expressing the adjacent parts, as by that means the bearings of the places in your map with regard to others will be more clearly expressed.

All the maps in this treatise, and indeed those in almost all others being laid down according to the laws of stereographic projection, it was thought necessary to explain the principles upon which it is founded; because from a thorough knowledge of these only, the nature and use of maps can be obtained. And as these principles are general, there will be no difficulty in understanding a map, when projected in the plane of any other circle. Thus for instance if the map be constructed on the plane of the equator, then will the eye be situated in one of the poles of the world; and as all the meridians pass through the eye, they will become straight lines in the projection, flowing from the pole to the equator, which being the primitive circle the divisions on it will be equal. The parallels of latitude will become circles parallel to the equator, and the pole of their common centre. Their distance from each other will be equal to the line of half-tangents adapted to the radius of the projection. Thus will the meridians and parallels of latitude be drawn; and the parallels of latitude may be numbered by beginning at the equator, and proceeding to the pole, ten, twenty, thirty, &c. The degrees of longitude are reckoned on the equator, which is here the primitive circle. Divide this circle into 360 equal parts or degrees, beginning from the first meridian, or that passing through the place where the longitude is supposed to begin, numbering them both on the right and left, till they meet in the opposite point, or 180 degrees. So will your map be divided into east and west longitude; as it was before into north or south latitude by the parallels. It is there-

fore ready for the insertion of places, which is easily done from a table of latitudes and longitudes.

A map projected on the plane of the equator shews the true decrease of the degrees of longitude in every parallel of latitude: and the parts near the pole are better represented in this than in the meridional projection. But the mutual bearings and distances of places cannot be determined; the countries near the equator are represented in a proportion much larger than those near the pole: nor is it possible to express Europe, Asia, and Africa, in one hemisphere, and America in another: this is an advantage peculiar to the meridional projection.

Maps are also sometimes constructed on the plane of the horizon of any place. Here the eye is placed in the zenith, or rather in that point of the earth's surface which is perpendicularly under the zenith in the heavens. Here the meridians, parallels of latitude, equator, and ecliptic, are all oblique circles, except the meridian of the place, which becomes a straight line, passing through the eye. This projection is very rarely used, and therefore it will be unnecessary to dwell upon it; especially as the projection may be readily performed, if the general principles of stereographic projection be well considered.

ORTHOGRAPHIC PROJECTION OF MAPS.

IN the orthographic projection the eye is supposed to be placed at an infinite distance from the earth. If in this situation a plane be supposed to pass through the centre of the globe, and to stand at right-angles to the eye, and a line be supposed to be carried round the circumference of any circle described upon the surface of the globe, in a direction always perpendicular to the plane, and parallel to itself, it will trace out on the cutting-plane an orthographical representation of that circle, consequently if this line be carried to move about every circle described upon the surface of the globe, the whole will be projected. Plate II. fig. 2, is one of the hemispheres with its circles projected orthographically on the plane of the meridian. In this projection the parallels of latitude are straight lines, but all the meridians except the first, semi-ellipses. From the above definition it follows,

1. That the common intersection of the plane on which the projection is to be formed with the surface of the globe, will be the circumference of a circle.
2. That the pole of that circle upon whose plane the sphere is to be projected, will fall in the centre of the plane of projection.
3. That every great circle, perpendicular to the plane of projection, will be represented by a right-line, passing through the pole of projection, equal to its diameter and to the diameter of the sphere.
4. That the angle formed by two great circles, standing at right-angles with the plane of projection, will be equal to the angle formed by their representatives upon the plane of the projection.
5. That all small circles, parallel to any of the above great circles, or which stand at right-angles to the plane of projection, will be represented by right-lines, whose diameters will be equal in length to the diameter of the circle they represent.
6. That the distance of every such small circle in the projection, from the great circle to which it is parallel, will be equal to the sine of such small circle's distance from the great circle upon the sphere to which it is equal.
7. That all small circles parallel to the plane of projection will become circles in the projection.

8. That all these small circles will have one common centre, viz. the pole of the projection.

9. That their radii, or semidiameters, will always be equal to the sine of their respective distances from the pole, on the co-sines of their elevations above the plane of the projection.

10. That every great circle inclined to the plane of projection, will be projected into an ellipsis.

11. That the transverse axis, or longest diameter of the ellipsis is equal to the diameter of the great circle it represents, and consequently equal to the diameter of the sphere itself.

12. That the conjugate or shortest diameter is equal to twice the co-sine of its inclination to the plane of projection, or to the double sine of its distance from the pole of projection, measured in the arch of the great circle that passes through the pole, and cuts the given circle at right-angles.

13. That every small circle inclined to the plane of projection, will be represented by an ellipsis.

14. That the transverse axis of every ellipsis representing any small circle, will be equal to twice the sine of that small circle's distance from its nearest pole.

15. That this diameter will always stand at right angles, to the representative of that great circle that passes through the pole of the small circle, and the pole of the primitive circle.

16. That the conjugate diameter of every ellipsis representing any small circle inclined to the plane of the projection, will be projected into that right-line which represents the great circle passing through the pole of the primitive circle, and through that of the circle to be projected.

17. That the conjugate diameter of the ellipsis representing any small circle, is equal to the sum or difference of the co-sines of the elevations of the respective points above the plane of the projection.

18. If the sines of the greatest and least distance of the two extremities of any small circle from the pole of the primitive circle be set off, either on the same or contrary sides of the centre or pole of projection, in that projected great circle which passes through the pole of the same small circle to be projected, and the pole of the primitive circle, we shall have the two extremities of the conjugate diameter of the small circle to be projected; and if through the middle of this line, and at right-angles to it a right-line be drawn equal to the double sine of the distance of the small circle from its pole, we shall have the two extremities of the transverse diameter; through which four points, if an ellipsis be described, it will be the representative of the small circle to be projected.

19. And because the semi-conjugate diameter of every great circle is equal to the co-sine of its elevation above the plane of projection, or to the sine of its nearest approach to the pole of the projection itself; therefore if the right sine of its nearest approach, or the co-sine of its elevation, be set off from the centre or pole of the projection, on either side, we shall have the two extremities of the conjugate diameter, through which, and the extremities of the transverse axis, if an ellipsis be described, it will be the representative of the given great circle in the projection.

From the above precepts, the representative of any great or small circle may be drawn upon any given plane, and consequently the sphere projected orthographically. But as all the circles inclined to the plane of the projection are ellipses, and therefore more difficult to be drawn than circles, and at the same time subject to less degree of accuracy, this projection is rarely used in geographical maps, nor would they be so

useful as those drawn according to the laws of stereographic projection; because the parts near the primitive circle are so prodigiously contracted, and consequently the places so crowded together, that no idea can be formed of the real magnitude of these parts, or of their distances from one another. This will sufficiently appear from Plate II. fig. 2. which is an orthographical projection of one of the hemispheres on the plane of the meridian, or primitive circle NESW, where it may be observed that the closeness of the meridians near the primitive circle, must render it of very little use.

OF SEA CHARTS.

In some books of geography, particularly those where the voyages of navigators are described, the sea coasts, islands, &c. are laid down by a method very different from those already described; both the meridians and parallels of latitude being right-lines. These are generally called Mercator's charts, from Gerard Mercator, who, about the year 1550 published a very incorrect chart of this kind, but without the least mention of the principles on which it was constructed. This was reserved for our countryman Mr. Edward Wright, who in the year 1599, published a book entitled "Errors in Navigation detected and corrected;" in which he shewed the method of constructing a true sea-chart, and explained the principles on which it is founded. It is necessary in the practice of navigation, that the rhumbs should be straight lines; and this essential property cannot be obtained unless the meridians are parallel to one another, and the parallels of latitude cross them at right-angles. But as the meridians on the globe meet in the pole, and consequently the degrees of longitude become less and less, in advancing from the equator towards the poles, a chart delineated in the above manner must be extremely inaccurate, unless some method can be found to balance the errors flowing from the very nature of the construction. This Mr. Wright performed by increasing the degrees of latitude as they approach the poles in the same proportion, as the degrees of longitude between any two meridians decrease on the terrestrial globe.

The principal difficulty in constructing a true sea chart seems to have consisted in discovering a proper method of applying the surface of a globe to a plane; which Mr. Wright accomplished by the following ingenious conception.

Suppose a rectangular plane was rolled about a globe till the edges of the plane met, and formed a kind of concave cylinder inclosing the globe, and touching its equator. Conceive the surface of this globe to swell (like a bladder while it is blowing up) from the equator towards the poles, proportionally in latitude as it does in longitude, until every part of its surface meets that of the concave cylinder, and imprest thereon the lines that were drawn the globular surface. Then the cylinder, the rectangular plane, being unrolled, will represent a sea chart, whose parts bear the same proportion to one another as the corresponding parts do on the globe.

For in this formation of the nautical chart, every parallel of latitude on the globe will be increased till it is equal to the equator; and so the distance of the meridians in those parallels will become equal to their distance at the equator; consequently the meridians on the chart will be expressed by right-lines. Also, because the meridians are lengthened as the parallels increase; therefore the distances between the parallels of latitude become wider and wider as they approach the poles: but these parallels are also right-lines. And, as the rhumb lines on the globe cut the meridians at equal angles, they will also on the chart cut the meridians at equal angles,

and consequently be expressed by right-lines; because none but right-lines can cut several parallel right-lines, at equal angles.

Having thus explained the contrivance made use of by Mr. Wright, the construction is easily deduced from the following principles.

1. The distance between any two meridians at the equator, is in proportion to their distance in any parallel of latitude; as the radius to the co-sine of that latitude.

Hence it is easy to construct a table, shewing, from the equator to the poles the approximation of two meridians in any latitude; or how many English miles make a degree of longitude in every latitude.

2. Any part of a parallel of latitude, is to a like part of a meridian, as radius to the secant of the latitude to that parallel.

3. The distance of any parallel of latitude from the equator, is expressed by the sum of the secants of all the arches between the equator and that parallel.

Hence it appears that by the addition of the secants of small arches, the distance of the parallels of latitude from the equator are obtained. And these several distances, which are called "meridional parts," being disposed in a table corresponding to the degrees and minutes of a quadrant, form a table of meridional parts.

This table being composed, a sea-chart is easily constructed. For the meridians are right-lines at equal distances from each other, and the parallels of latitude cross them at right-angles, but their distances from each other are equal to the numbers expressed in the table of meridional parts. If therefore a right-line representing the equator be drawn, and divided into as many equal parts as the chart is designed to contain degrees of longitude, and through every ten of these divisions right-lines perpendicular to the equator be drawn, they will represent the meridians. Then take successively from the equator the number of divisions answering to the latitude of ten, twenty, thirty, &c. in the table of meridional parts, set them off on the two meridians that bound the chart in longitude, and draw lines from one division to the other; these will be the parallels of latitude. The chart is now constructed and ready for the insertion of places from a table of latitudes and longitudes.

This chart is principally adapted to the practice of navigation, and, in that particular, may be justly considered as one of the most useful discoveries that have been made since the revival of learning in Europe; because the conclusions resulting from it are accurate, and, at the same time, the rectilinearity of the rhumb lines is preserved. The bearings and distances of places are found on this chart, with the greatest ease and expedition; but the different parts of the globe are by no means represented in their true magnitudes. An island in the latitude of sixty degrees for instance will be represented in this projection twice as large as it really is; and for this reason, we rarely meet with these charts in books of geography.

USE OF MAPS.

[MAPS.] A map is the representation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, but a map no more than a plane surface can represent one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of several of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself.

[CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on the right hand, the

face being turned to the north; and the west on the left hand, opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distances, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the distance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses or a bit of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shews that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

S E C T. VIII.

METHODS FOR FINDING THE LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES OF PLACES FROM CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

WHAT is meant by latitude and longitude has already been sufficiently explained, it remains that we shew the methods used for finding both by celestial observations.

I. OF FINDING THE LATITUDE.

AS the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith distance, of any celestial object, whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north or south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But if the sun or star hath either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or added to, the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations.

1. If the zenith distance and declination have the same name, their difference will give the latitude. And if the declination is greater than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of the same name with the declination; but if the declination be less than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of a contrary name. If they are equal, the latitude will be 00 degrees, 00 minutes; that is, the place is situated under the equinoctial.

2. If the declination and zenith distance are of contrary names, that is, one north and the other south; their sum will be the latitude, and always of the same name with the declination.

In most books of astronomy and navigation are tables of the declination of the sun, and principal fixed stars; and the meridian altitude of the sun or stars may be easily found by a great variety of instruments.

3. When the object appears in the zenith, the latitude is equal to the declination, and also of the same name.

There are several other methods for finding the latitude; but the above will be sufficient in this place, especially as it is generally used.

2. OF FINDING THE LONGITUDE.

IT has been already observed, that the difference of longitude between any two places might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens was seen in those places. For since the sun and fixed stars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the same thing, the earth revolves about its axis in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there passes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to fifteen degrees, and a proportionable part in a greater or lesser time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities for making observations of this kind. For as these appearances consist in the appulses, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their passing by one another; and these appulses, when they happen, are seen at the same instant of absolute time in all parts of the earth where they are visible: therefore by knowing the relative times of the day when such appearances are seen in two distant places, the difference between those times is known, and consequently the difference of longitude between those places.

Several Ephemeris or Almanacks are annually published, in which the times when the eclipses of the sun, moon, and Jupiter's satellites; the rising, setting, and southing of the planets; the appulses of the moon to certain fixed stars; and other celestial appearances, are determined with regard to some meridian. By the help of one of these books, and a careful observation of these appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipses of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as these eclipses are occasioned by an interposition of the earth between her and the sun, and consequently she is immersed in the earth's shadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the solar rays, it is visible to all those people who can see her, at the same instant of absolute time. Hence by observing the beginning, middle, or end of an eclipse of the moon in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of these phenomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the same eclipse, adapted to some other meridian, the difference of time, and consequently the difference of longitude between those two places, will be known.

Suppose, for instance, the beginning of an eclipse of the moon happened at London sixteen minutes after two in the morning, but not till fifty-seven minutes forty seconds after six in the morning at Boston in New-England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty seconds, equal to seventy degrees twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude: and because the eclipse happened later at Boston than at London, the difference of longitude will be west. Consequently if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boston will be seventy degrees twenty-five minutes west.

The longitude of places may also be obtained from the observations of solar eclipses, but these being incumbered with the consideration of parallaxes, are much less adapted to that purpose than those of the moon.

But as the eclipses of the sun and moon happen but seldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. That planet has four moons or satellites, moving round him at different distances, and in different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipsed almost every night: for they disappear either in going behind Jupiter, or passing before him; and the instant of such immersions or emersions may be seen by a refracting telescope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The passage of the moon, or the superior planets over the meridian, affords another method of discovering the longitude: for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets pass the meridian of some place, and finding by observation the time when the object passes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is still another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the apulses of the moon to certain fixed stars, and their occultations by the interposition of her body. For the moon finishing her revolution in the space of twenty-seven days, seven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not pass over, or so near some fixed star, that the time of the nearest approach, or the visible conjunction may be easily observed. And these, when compared with the visible time computed to the meridian of some place, will shew the difference of longitude.

The last method we shall mention for finding the longitude, is by a time-keeper, a kind of clock or watch, which will always shew the true time under the meridian of some particular place: for by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing them with the time then shewn by such a machine, the difference of longitude between those places will be determined. The ingenious Mr. Harrison, a few years since, completed such a time-keeper, which was found, upon trial to answer even beyond the most sanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thousand pounds from the government, as a reward for his discovery: but for some reasons, not generally known, the time-keeper has been hitherto kept from the public.

S E C T I O N IX.

OF THE SOURCES OF HEAT AND COLD.*

* THAT the presence of the sun is the principal source of heat as well as of light, and its absence of cold, is too obvious to have been ever doubted; neither have mankind been long ignorant of the effect of the greater or lesser obliquity of its rays. The slightest attention to their sensations during the short period of 24 hours, was sufficient to instruct them so far; but the immediate and most plausible inference from this simple observation, though assented to for a series of ages, was fully refuted by subsequent discoveries. The philosophers of Greece and Italy (the only whose writings have been transmitted to us) observing that in the Summer months,

* Extracted from an ingenious work lately published, entitled "An Estimate of the Temperature of different Latitudes." By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. Member of the R. I. A. &c. &c. &c.

during which, in their latitudes, the sun at mid-day is often nearly vertical, the heat was very intense, and that in Winter, when its meridian altitude was least, the resulting cold was equally considerable, hastily concluded that, between the tropics, where its altitude most part of the year is nearly vertical, its heat must be intolerable, and, for opposite reasons, they judged the countries within the polar circles uninhabitable*. Time among other errors has removed this; but, as usually happens, it has brought forward other phenomena equally difficult to explain. The hottest days are frequently felt in the coldest climates, and reciprocally the coldest weather, and even perpetual snow, are found in countries bordering on, or even immediately under the equator. In the same latitudes very different temperatures have been observed, not only in different, but even in the same hemisphere. The temperature of the eastern coast of North America differs widely from that of the western opposite coast of Europe, but agrees nearly with that of the eastern coast of Asia lying between the same parallels†; these, and several other phenomena of the same nature, less remote from us, clearly shew we must recur to some other causes besides the immediate agency or absence of the solar rays.

"The celebrated Halley has indeed proved that, abstracting from the intervention of fogs, mists, and mountains of ice, the hottest weather might in Summer time take place even under the poles, the duration of the sun's light more than compensating for the obliquity of its direction; for it is evident, that a weak force, acting for a long time, may produce as great, or a greater effect, than a stronger force acting for a shorter time: but as these abstractions are never realized; and many physical causes constantly obstruct the activity of the solar rays in these and other regions, the necessity of recurring to some other cause still remained, until Mr. De Mairan removed the veil; to him we owe the discovery, that the rigour of the Winter's cold is tempered by the heat imparted to the atmosphere by the earth itself: this heat he styles; in common with some celebrated philosophers of this day, a central emanation, thinking it proceeds from some mighty mass of fire or heat in the centre of the earth; a supposition that appears to me both groundless and needless. The earth and water were created together, and water, even before the formation of the sun, was in a liquid state, and consequently must have possessed at least 32° of our thermometrical degrees; nor could the earth be devoid of heat, otherwise the water would have been speedily congealed. It appears then, that the globe from its very origin possessed the heat necessary for the purposes it was intended to serve: this heat indeed would have been long lost, had it not been preserved and renewed by the incessant influence of the sun, to which one-half of its surface is constantly exposed. But as no authentic observation informs us that this heat increases in proportion as we penetrate below the surface of the earth, but, on the contrary, many shew it to decrease (though never to less than 36°), and that its variation at the same distance below the surface, constantly keeps pace with the variation of the solar heat on the surface, it seems evident, that it is to this planet alone it owes its continuation.

"The discovery of Mr. De Mairan in great measure removed the difficulty of explaining by what means the Winter's cold is so far tempered, as to render the colder climates inhabitable; but it went no further; we were still at a loss to know the mean annual, or monthly temperature of these latitudes. I say the mean or average temperature, for no other is an object of science, as no two succeeding years exactly agree in temperature. He has, indeed, with great sagacity, calculated the *maximum* and *minimum* of heat in every latitude, for the Summer and Winter solstices;

* Plin. Lib. II. cap. 68.

† Vol. I. Mem. Philadelph.

‡ Mem. Par. 1719 and 1767.

but so many physical causes intervene, that the events seldom or ever coincide with his calculations, as he himself candidly owns.

"The famed astronomer Tobias Mayer, of Gottingen, in a few pages did more for resolving all the difficulties that occurred on this subject than any of his predecessors*. He first pointed out to meteorologists, the necessity of following the method long used by astronomers, namely, of first finding the mean of certain large periods, as years and months, gradually correcting the errors that may be discovered, and afterwards finding an equation whereby to correct aberrations arising from height and situation. He even proceeded so far as to give an equation to correct the effects of height, which in many cases approximates very nearly; but his most important discovery seems to me to have been the equation, by which knowing the mean annual temperature of two latitudes, the mean annual temperature of every other latitude, and even of the pole itself, may be found.

"The defects of Mr. Mayer's method are, 1. That he does not point out the particular space his determinations respect, and it is evident they do not indiscriminately take place every where, for instance, in no part of America. 2dly. That he has given no equation to correct the calculation of the temperature of places distant from the sea, nor is his equation for height sufficiently exact. 3dly. That he gives no account of the monthly temperature. 4thly. That he is totally silent with regard to the eastern coasts of Asia, America, and the southern hemisphere: these, and some other, I shall endeavour to supply.

"The next source of heat is the condensation of vapour. It is well known that vapour contains a quantity of the matter of heat, which produces no other effect but that of making it assume an aerial, expanded state, until the vapour is condensed into a liquid; but during this condensation a quantity of sensible heat is set loose, which warms the surrounding atmosphere. This condensation is frequently caused by the attraction of an electrical cloud, and hence the fulminels we frequently experience before rain.

"As the earth is the chief source of heat in the atmosphere that surrounds it, distance from the earth is a source of cold; or, in other words, the greatest cold must prevail in the highest regions of the atmosphere, and so much the greater, as clear, unclouded air, seems to receive no heat whatsoever from the rays of the sun, whether direct or reflected. Thus if the focus of the most powerful burning glass be directed on mere air, it does not produce the smallest degree of heat; and the reason is, because the air being transparent, affords a free passage to the rays of light, which act as fire only when confined within the minutest interfaces of bodies; as it is then, and then only, that they counteract the attractive power of the particles of matter; in which action and re-action heat consists.

"Hence the highest mountains, even under the equator, are, during the whole year, covered with snow. Mr. Bouguer found the cold of Pinchinca, one of the Cordelieres, immediately under the line, to extend from 7 to 9 degrees under the freezing point every morning before sunrise; and hence at a certain height, which varies in almost every latitude, it constantly freezes at night in every season, though in the warm climates it thaws to some degree the next day: this height he calls the *lower term of congelation*: between the tropics he places it at the height of 15577 feet.

"But in lat. 28° he thinks it should commence, in Summer time, at the height of 13440 feet from the level of the sea. Supposing that to be the height of the

Pic of Teneriffe, and that this mountain was covered with snow in Summer, both which suppositions the chevalier La Borde has shewn to be erroneous, the determination of the height of the lower term of congelation I take to be of great consequence in meteorology, and therefore shall give a table of it for every 5° of latitude.

"At still greater heights it never freezes, not because the cold decreases, but because vapours do not ascend so high; this height Mr. Bouguer calls the *upper term of congelation*, and under the equator he fixes it at the height of 28000 feet at most *.

"Under the equator, there being very little variety in the weather, the height of both terms is nearly constant; under other latitudes, this height is variable, both in Summer and Winter, according to the degree of heat which prevails on the surface of the earth. But as there is a mean annual temperature peculiar to each latitude, we take the differences between the mean temperatures of every latitude, and the point of congelation, it is evident, that whatever proportion the difference under the equator bears to the height of either of the above terms, the same proportion will the difference peculiar to every other latitude bear to the height of those terms: for a moderate heat diffuses itself in the same manner as a great heat, and the distance to which their activity extends, will be proportioned to the intensity of each. Thus the mean heat of the equator being 84, the difference of this and 32, is 52. And the mean heat of lat. 28° being 72, the difference between this and 32, is 40. Then as 52-15577::40,3-12072. In this manner, I have calculated the following tables, which I have inserted here, as the properest place, though some of the principles on which the calculation is founded, have not yet been given, but may be seen page 42.

Mean height of the Lower Term at Congelation.			Mean height of the Upper Term of Congelation.		
LAT.	FEET.	FEET.	LAT.	FEET.	FEET.
0	15577	28000	45°	7658	13730
5°	15457	27784	50°	6260	11253
10°	15067	27084	55°	4912	8830
15°	14498	26061	60°	3684	6516
20°	13719	24661	65°	2516	4676
25°	13030	23423	70°	1557	2800
30°	11592	20838	75°	748	1346
35°	10664	19169	80°	120	209
40°	9016	16207			

"In this manner, the height of both terms of congelation may be calculated in every latitude, for every degree of heat observed at the surface of the earth, on which it evidently depends; for when that is at 32°, it is evident the lower line of congelation is also on the surface.

"Hence knowing the height of the lower term of congelation in any latitude, and also the general temperature at the surface of the earth†, the decrement of heat at any lower height may be known. For heat is observed to diminish in ascending into the atmosphere, nearly in an arithmetical progression; and in this case, we have the first and last terms; and if we make so many terms in the progression, as

* The measures of every kind mentioned in this Essay, are reduced to those in use in England.

† This is not easily known, for it is the mean result of a number of observations made over a large extent, and of considerable duration.

there are hundreds of feet in the distance of the line of congelation, we have all that is requisite to find the decrement at each term.

Then let L = the intire decrement, or difference between the heat at the surface and 32° .

D = the distance of the lower line of congelation, in feet.

n = the number of terms = $\frac{D}{100}$

d = the first decrement = $\frac{L}{n}$

R = the rank of any given term, whose decrement is required.

" Then the decrement at any given term = $R d$; and by subtracting this from the heat at the surface, we have the heat at that given height. The temperature at the upper term of congelation, may be investigated in the same manner, or that of any other height in the atmosphere, except over mountains; for the air over mountains is generally warmer than air of the same height over the sea, or over plains.

" In the neighbourhood of Paris, lat. $48^{\circ}50'$, the temperature of the atmosphere near the earth being 47° , that, at the estimated height of 11084 feet was found, by the intrepid Charles, 21° , or 11° below congelation.

" Near Dijon, lat. 47° , on the 25th of April, the temperature near the earth being 56° , Mr. Morveau found it, at the height of 10631 feet, to be only 26° . It is true, that on the 12th of June, he found his thermometer heated to 70° , at the height of 5280 feet; but his balloon was exceedingly heated by the direct rays of the sun.

" Lord Mulgrave, at the foot of Hackluyt hill, lat. 80° , found the temperature of the lower air to be 50° , that, on the summit of the hill being 42° : its height was 1503 feet.

" Sometimes the temperature of the upper air is higher than that of the lower, particularly when a large mass of vapour is condensed by electrical agency; for no part of the heat given out by that cause being lost by communication with air much colder, that which surrounds the vapours so condensed, must be heated to a considerable degree. Air rendered opaque by clouds, transmits less, and consequently absorbs more light, and is therefore more heated than clear air. Sometimes winds, in opposite directions and different temperatures, flow at different heights, the uppermost being often the warmest; all which circumstances, particularly in cloudy weather, render all calculations of the height of the terms of congelation, on any particular day, precarious, though when they regard a particular month or season, they may be sufficiently exact.

" The next general source of cold is *evaporation*; for the attraction of the particles of liquids decreases as their points of contact diminish, and thereby their capacity for receiving the matter of heat, (which is the same as that of light) increases; by this increased capacity, the matter of heat or fire contained in the neighbouring bodies, which, like all other fluids, flows where it finds least resistance, is determined to flow towards the vapour; and consequently those bodies are cooled, though the vapour is not heated; because the re-action of its particles is barely equal to that which it had before its capacity was increased.

" With respect to evaporation, we may remark *, 1. That in our climates, it is about four times as great from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, as from the autumnal to the vernal.

* See 2 N. Com. Petrop. p. 55.

" 2dly. That other circumstances being equal, it is so much the greater, as the difference between the temperature of the air, and that of the evaporating surface is greater; and so much the smaller, as this difference is smaller, and therefore smallest, when the air and the evaporating liquid are both at the same temperature. The former part of this proposition, however, requires some restriction; for if air be more than 15 degrees colder than the evaporating surface, there is scarce any evaporation at all; but, on the contrary, it deposits moisture on the surface of the liquid.

" 3dly. The degree of cold produced by evaporation, is much greater when the air is warmer than the evaporating surface, than that which is produced when the evaporating surface is the warmer of the two. For, in the first case, the dilatation of the vapour is constantly increased; and, in the second, it is checked. Now the more vapour is dilated, the more fire it absorbs; and hence it is coldest in an exhausted receiver where it dilates most. Hence warm winds, as the Sirocco, Harmatan, &c. are more desiccative than cold winds.

" 4thly. Evaporation is so much the less obstructed by air, as the air is already less loaded with vapour. And hence cold winds flowing into warmer countries, powerfully promote it.

" 5thly. That it is greatly increased by a current of air or wind flowing over the evaporating surface, not only because the evaporating surface is thereby increased, but also because unsaturated air is constantly brought into contact with it. Hence it has been remarked that calm days are the hottest*.

" 6thly. That tracts of land covered with trees or vegetables, emit more vapour than the same space covered with water, as Dr. Hales has observed. Mr. Williams found this quantity to amount to one-third more†.

" Lastly, We may observe, that the heat and cold of different countries are transmitted from one to the other by the medium of winds. How the air of a cold country is determined to flow towards a warmer, is easily understood; but by what means warm air is determined to flow towards cold countries, is somewhat difficult to explain. I shall here mention three causes that occur to me, wishing for a fuller explanation from others.

" First, If a strong northerly wind prevails in the direction of the meridian opposite to London, as in the country of the Tschutschki, in the eastern extremity of Asia, this current must be supplied by air from the north pole; and this in its turn by air south of the pole, in the direction of the meridian of London.

" 2dly. If from any tract in the upper regions of the atmosphere, two currents of air flow in opposite directions, as sometimes happens, the inferior air being less compressed, will become specifically lighter; and currents of air in opposite directions to the upper currents will take place.

" 3dly. I conceive that when easterly and westerly winds meet with unequal force, one of them may be reflected northwards.

OF A STANDARD SITUATION, WITH WHOSE TEMPERATURE THAT OF EVERY OTHER MAY BE COMPARED.

" FROM what has been already said, it follows, that some situations are better fitted to receive or communicate heat than other situations; thus high and mountainous situations being nearer to the source of cold, must be colder than lower situations; and countries covered with woods, as they prevent the access of the

* Mem. Par. 1751, p. 681, 12mo. edit.

† Second Vol. Philadelph. Transactions, p. 150.

Sun's rays to the earth, or to the heaps of snow which they may conceal, and present more numerous evaporating surfaces, must be colder than open countries, though situated in the same latitude; and since all tracts of land present infinite varieties of situation, uniform results cannot here be expected. It remains then, that we seek for a standard situation, with whose temperature in every latitude we may compare and appreciate the temperature of all other situations in the same latitudes, on water only. Now the globe contains, properly speaking, but two great tracts of water, or oceans; one the Atlantic, separating Europe and the western side of the old continent from America; and the other the Pacific, dividing Asia from America; both of which I divide into north and south, as they lie on the northern or southern side of the equator.

" In this immense tract of water I chose that situation for a standard, which recommends itself most by its simplicity and freedom from any but the most permanent causes of alteration, viz. that part of the Atlantic that lies between the 80th degree of northern and the 45th of southern latitude, and extending westwards as far as the gulph stream*, and to within a few leagues of the coast of America; and all that part of the Pacific Ocean, reaching from lat. 45° N. to lat. 40° S. from the 20th to the 275th degree of longitude, east of London, which is by far the greater part of the surface of the whole globe. Within this space it will be found that the mean annual temperature is as expressed in the following table. I have added the temperature of latitudes beyond 80° in the northern hemisphere, though not strictly within the standard.

TABLE of the Mean Annual Temperature of the Standard Situation, in every Latitude.

Lat.	Temper.	Lat.	Temper.	Lat.	Temper.
90	31.	61	43.5	32	69.1
89	31.04	60	44.3	31	69.9
88	31.10	59	45.09	30	70.7
87	31.14	58	45.8	29	71.5
86	31.2	57	46.7	28	72.3
85	31.4	56	47.5	27	72.8
84	31.5	55	48.4	26	73.8
83	31.7	54	49.2	25	74.5
82	32.	53	50.2	24	75.4
81	32.2	52	51.1	23	75.9
80	32.6	51	52.4	22	76.5
79	32.9	50	52.9	21	77.2
78	33.2	49	53.8	20	77.8
77	33.7	48	54.7	19	78.3
76	34.1	47	55.6	18	78.9
75	34.5	46	56.4	17	79.4
74	35.	45	57.5	16	79.9
73	35.5	44	58.4	15	80.4
72	36.	43	59.4	14	80.8
71	36.6	42	60.5	13	81.3
70	37.2	41	61.2	12	81.7
69	37.8	40	62.	11	82.
68	38.4	39	63.	10	82.3
67	39.1	38	63.9	9	82.7
66	39.7	37	64.8	8	82.9
65	40.4	36	65.7	7	83.2
64	41.2	35	66.6	6	83.4
63	41.9	34	67.4	5	83.6
62	42.7	33	68.3	4	84.

" This table is constructed on the following principles, which are nearly the same as those of Mayer.

" Supposing the mean annual heat to be greatest under the equator, and least under the poles, then if the temperature of the equator be m , the temperature of the north pole will be $m-n$, and putting ϕ for any other latitude, the temperature of that latitude will be $m-n \sin \phi$.

* Dr. Blagden, in an ingenious paper in the Philosoph. Transf. for 1781, has shewn that the temperature of this stream is considerably greater than that of the adjacent part of the Atlantic.

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" Now the mean annual temperature of lat. 40°, is found by the best observations, to be 62°, and the temperature of lat. 50°, is found to be 52.9, and this being allowed m and n , consequently the mean annual temperatures of the equator and of the poles may be determined; for, the square of the sine of 40°, is 0.41, and the square of the sine of 50°, is 0.58, both sufficiently near for the present purpose.

$$\text{Then } m - 0.41 n = 62,$$

$$\text{And } m - 0.58 n = 52.9$$

$$\text{Therefore } 62 + 0.41 n = 52.9 + 0.58 n.$$

" Whence the value of n is easily determined and found to be 53 nearly, and m in the first equation is 84; hence the mean temperature of the equator is 84, and that of the pole 31, in number.

" With respect to the annual temperature, we may remark: 1st. That within 10 degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little; neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

" 2dly. The temperatures of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more, as the latitudes approach the poles.

" 3dly. It scarce ever freezes in latitudes under 35°, unless in very elevated situations, and it scarce ever hails in latitudes higher than 60°*.

" 4thly. Between latitudes 35° and 60°, in places adjacent to the sea, it generally thaws when the sun's altitude is 40°, and seldom begins to freeze, until the sun's meridian altitude is below 40°.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS AND INFERENCES.

" IN the first place, we may observe, that the month of January is the coldest in every latitude.

" 2dly. That July is the warmest month in all latitudes above 48°; but in lower latitudes, August is generally the warmest.

" 3dly. That December and January, and also June and July, differ but little. In latitudes above 30°, the months of August, September, October, and November, differ more from each other, than those of February, March, April, and May. In latitudes under 30°, the difference is not so great. The temperature of April approaches more, every where, to the annual temperature, than that of any other month: whence we may infer, that the effects of natural causes, that operate gradually over a large extent, do not arrive at their *maximum*, until the activity of the causes begins to diminish; this appears also in the operation of the moon on seas, which produces tides; but after these effects have arrived at their *maximum*, the decrements are more rapid, than the increments originally were, during the progress to that *maximum*.

" 4thly. That the differences, between the hottest and coldest months, within 20° degrees of the equator, are inconsiderable, except in some peculiar situations; but that they increase in proportion, as we recede from the equator.

" 5thly. That in the highest latitudes, we often meet with a heat of 75 or 80 degrees; and particularly, in latitudes 59 and 60, the heat of July is frequently greater, than in latitude 51°.

" 6thly. That every habitable latitude enjoys a heat of 60 degrees at least, for two months; which heat seems necessary, for the growth and maturity of corn. The

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quickness of vegetation in the higher latitudes, proceeds from the duration of the sun over the horizon. Rain is little wanted, as the earth is sufficiently moistened by the liquefaction of the snow, that covers it during the Winter; in all this, we cannot sufficiently admire the wise disposition of Providence.

" 7thly. It is owing to the same provident hand, that the globe of the earth is intersected with seas and mountains, in a manner, that on its first appearance, seems altogether irregular and fortuitous; presenting to the eye of ignorance, the view of an immense ruin: but when the effects of these seeming irregularities, on the face of the globe, are carefully inspected, they are found most beneficial, and even necessary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for, to say nothing of the advantages of trade and commerce, which could not exist without these seas; we have seen, that it is by their vicinity, that the cold of the higher latitudes is moderated, and the heat of the lower. It is by the want of seas, that the interior parts of Asia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as those of Africa, are rendered almost uninhabitable; a circumstance which furnishes a strong prejudice against the opinion of those, who think these countries were the original habitations of man. In the same manner, mountains are necessary; not only as the reservoirs of rivers, but as a defence against the violence of heat, in the warm latitudes: without the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennine, the mountains of Dauphiné, and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain, and France would be deprived of the mild temperature, they at present enjoy. Without the Balgates hills, or Indian Apennine, India would have been a desert. Hence, Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and most other intertropical islands, are furnished with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refresh them.

" 8thly. We may observe, why grapes do not come to perfection in the neighbourhood of London, as they do in that of Paris, though the annual heat be nearly the same, and the Winters are rather milder at London; for by the tables of the monthly temperatures of both, we find, that from the beginning of April, to the end of October, the heat is greater at Paris; and thus we may learn the fitness of any climate, for any vegetable: hence we see, that vines may thrive, as they actually do, at Astracan*.

" Lastly. Since the astronomical source of heat is permanent, and the local causes of its modification undergo no annual variation, and yet the temperature of no two succeeding years, is perfectly alike, it is evident, that this annual variation proceeds from causes equally variable: of these, there may be many, but at present, we know of none, that have a demonstrable influence on the weather, but winds; and since winds themselves, however uncertain in appearance, are like all the other phenomena of nature, governed by fixed and determinate laws, they deserve the most serious investigation, for which we are at present tolerably well prepared.

OF THE CAUSES OF UNUSUAL COLD IN EUROPE.

" UNUSUAL cold happens either in the Summer, or in the Winter season; the circumstances, which render Summers less warm than usual, are pretty obvious; for the diminution of heat may arise, either from a long continuance of easterly or northerly winds, or from frequent and heavy rains, which are followed by great evaporation, or from a long continuation of cloudy weather, in the months of June and July, which prevents the earth from receiving its proper degree of heat.

" But the causes of unusual cold in winter, are more remote, and of more difficult investigation; those that I am acquainted with are,

* 2 Découvertes Russes, p. 111.

more in vapours, which render it specifically lighter; thus, during the great cold of Jan. 1783, the barometer was lower than it was known to be for 50 years before, during that month*: and Mufchenbrock remarked, that in Winter, when the mercury in the barometer descends, the cold increases†.

COMPARISON OF THE TEMPERATURE OF LONDON, WITH THAT OF OTHER NOTED PLACES.

"THE first column exhibits the differences of the annual temperature; the second, that of the month of January, as being generally the coldest; and the third, that of July; that of London, as the standard, being estimated at 1000. The degree of cold is estimated in the second column; and the degree of heat in the first and third.

	Annual.	Jan.	July.
London, - - - - -	1000	1000	1000
Paris, - - - - -	1028	1040	1037
Edinburgh, - - - - -	923	1040	914
Berlin, - - - - -	942		
Stockholm, - - - - -	811	1583	964
Petersburgh, - - - - -	746	3590	1008
Vienna, - - - - -	987	1305	1037
Pekin, - - - - -	1067	1730	1283
Bordeaux, - - - - -	1090	925	1139
Montpelier, - - - - -	1170	850	1196
Madeira, - - - - -	1319	559	1128
Spanish Town, in Jamaica, - - - - -	1557		
Madras, - - - - -	1565	491	1349

A View of the Annual Temperature of different Places, according to the Order of their Latitudes.

North Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean Annual Heat.	North Lat. deg. m.	Longitude deg. m.	Mean Annual Heat.
Wadso, in Lapland	70° 5'	36°	Laufanne	46° 31'	6,50 E. 48,97
Abo	60,27	22,18 E. 40,	Padua	45,23	12, E. 52,2
Petersburgh	59,56	30,24 E. 38,8	Rhodes, in Guienne	45,21	2,39 E. 52,9
Upsal	59,51	17,47 E. 41,88	Bordeaux	44,50	0,36 W. 57,6
Stockholm	59,20	18, E. 42,39	Montpelier	43,36	3,73 E. 60,87
Solytkamski	59,	54, E. 36,2	Marfeilles	43,19	5,27 E. 61,8
Edinburgh	55,57	3, W. 47,7	Mont Louis, in Rouffillon	42,	2,40 E. 44,5
Francker	53,	5,42 E. 54,6	Cambridge, in N. England	42,25	71, W. 50,3
Berlin	52,32	13,31 E. 49,	Philadelphia	39,56	75,09 W. 52,5
Lyndon, in Rutland	52,30	0, 3 W. 48,03	Pekin	39,54	116,29 W. 55,5
Leyden	52,10	4,32 E. 52,25	Algiers	36,49	2,17 E. 72,
London	51,31	5,19	Grand Cairo	30,	31,23 E. 73,
Dunkirk	51,02	2, 7 E. 54,9	Canton	23,	113, E. 75,14
Manheim	49,27	0, 2 E. 51,5	Tivoli, in St. Domingo	19,	
Rouen	49,26	1, W. 51,	Spanish Town, in Jamaica	18,15	76,38 W. 81,
Ratisbon	48,56	12,05 E. 49,35	Manilla	14,36	120,58 E. 78,4
Paris	48,50	2,25 E. 52,	Fort St. George	13,	87, E. 81,3
Troyes, in Champagne	48,18	4,10 E. 53,17	Ponticherry	12,	67, E. 88,
Vienna	48,12	16,22 E. 51,53			
Dijon	47,19	4,57 E. 52,8			
Nantes	47,13	1,28 E. 55,53			
Poitiers	46,39	0,30 E. 53,8	Falkland Islands	51,	66, W. 47,4
			Quito	0,13	77,50 W. 62,

* 25 Roz. 463. Mem. Berlin, 1782, p. 25.

† Mufchenb. p. 120. §. MMLXX.

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SECTION X.

THEORY OF THE WINDS AND TIDES.

THE doctrine of fluids is very extensive, and cannot be explained at large in the small space allotted for this disquisition. All that can be expected here, is an elucidation of the trade winds and monsoons; and the cause of the ebbing and flowing of the sea.

I. THEORY OF THE WIND.

AIR is a fine invisible fluid, surrounding the globe of the earth, and extending to some miles above its surface: and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumscribing the earth, is called the atmosphere.

Few natural bodies have been the subject of more experiments than the air; and from these it appears, that it is both heavy and elastic. By its gravity it is capable of supporting all lighter bodies, as smoke, vapours, fumes, odours, &c. And by its elasticity, a small volume of air is capable of expanding itself in such a manner as to fill a very large space, and also of being compressed into a much smaller compass.

Cold has the property of compressing air, and heat of expanding it. But as soon as the cause of the expansion or compression is taken away, it will return to its natural state. Hence if an alteration be made in any part of the atmosphere, either by heat or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put into commotion, by the effort which the air always makes to recover its former state.

Wind is nothing more than a stream or current of air capable of very different degrees of velocity, and generally blowing from one point of the horizon to its opposite part. The horizon, like all other great circles of the sphere, is divided into 360 degrees: but as these divisions are too minute for common use, it is also divided into thirty-two equal parts called rhumbs, or points of the compass.

Winds are either constant or variable, general or particular. Constant winds are such as always blow the same way, at least for a considerable length of time. Variable winds are such as frequently shift, or change from one point of the compass to another. A general wind, is that which blows the same way over a large tract of the earth the greater part of the year. A particular wind is that which blows in any particular place, sometimes one way and sometimes another.

The trade-wind is a current of air blowing continually from the east, on the Atlantic and Pacific ocean, between thirty degrees north and thirty degrees south latitude.

The cause of this constant wind is the action of the sun in his apparent motion from east to west. For the air immediately under the sun being more heated, and consequently more expanded in that part than in any other, the air to the eastward is constantly rushing towards the west, in order to restore the equilibrium, or natural state of the atmosphere; and by that means occasions a continual current of air from the eastward within those limits.

But the trade-winds near the northern boundary blow between the north and east; and near the southern between the south and east. For as the air is expanded by the heat of the sun near the equator, therefore the air from the northward and southward will both flow towards the equator, to restore the equilibrium. But these motions from the north and south, being compounded with the foregoing easterly motion, will

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produce the motions observed near the above limits, between the north and east and between the south and west.

It must however be observed, that these general currents of the wind are disturbed on the continents and near the coast. Sometimes the nature of the soil increases or lessens the heat in the atmosphere; and sometimes chains of mountains form a kind of eddy near their western sides; hence the motions of the winds may be different and even contrary to the general motions above observed.

In some parts of the Indian ocean another species of trade-winds, called *monsoons*, prevail. These blow six months one way, and six months the contrary way.

These phenomena flow from the same cause. For the air that is cool and dense, must force the warm and rarefied air in a continual stream upwards, where it must spread itself to preserve an equilibrium; consequently the upper course or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the under current must move from those parts where the greatest heat is; and so, by a kind of circulation, the north-east trade-wind below, will be attended with a south-west wind above; and a south-east below with a north-west above. Experience has sufficiently confirmed the truth of this proposition; the seamen always finding that as soon as they leave the trade-winds, they immediately find a wind blowing in an opposite direction.

Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north-latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape-Verd and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd islands, is a tract of sea which seems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and such frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the *Rains*. This phenomenon seems to be caused by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coast, which causing a perpetual current of air to set in from the westward, and this current meeting here with the general trade-wind, the two currents balance each other, and cause a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind meeting and condensing, occasion those frequent deluges of rain.

2. THEORY OF THE TIDES.

BY the word tide is understood that motion of the water in the seas and rivers by which they regularly rise and fall.

The phenomena of the tides occasioned a variety of opinions among the ancient philosophers; but the true cause continued unknown till the latter end of the last century, when it was discovered by the illustrious Sir Isaac Newton, who deduced it from the following observations.

One of the inherent properties of matter is gravitation or attraction. It is owing to this property, that heavy bodies thrown up into the air fall down to the surface of the earth in perpendicular directions. And as all lines drawn from the centre of a sphere to its circumference are perpendicular to its surface, therefore all heavy bodies fall in lines tending to the centre. This property of gravitation or attraction is found to be universally diffused through this solar system, and probably through the whole universe. The heavenly bodies are governed by this great law of nature. The earth and moon gravitate towards, or attract each other; and both of them gravitate towards, or are attracted by the sun. Experience has also demonstrated, that the force of attraction exerted by these bodies on one another, is less and less, as they are farther removed asunder in proportion to the squares of those distances.

From these general principles it follows, that the gravitation of bodies towards the centre of the earth will be less on those parts of its surface that are opposite to the sun and moon than in the others; and this defect of gravitation or attraction in

particular parts, is the true cause of the ebbing and flowing of the tide. For it is evident, that if no such forces were exerted by the sun and moon, the oceans, being equally attracted towards the earth's centre on all sides by the force of gravity, would continue in a state of perfect stagnation. But as these forces are really exerted, the waters in the oceans must rise higher in those places where the sun and moon diminish their gravity; or where the attraction of the sun and moon is greatest.

This being an undeniable fact, it follows, that as the force of gravity must be diminished most in those places of the earth to which the moon is nearest, viz. in the zenith; therefore the waters in such places will rise higher, and consequently it will be full sea or flood in such places.

From the same principles it follows, that the parts of the earth directly under the moon in the zenith, and those in the nadir, or those diametrically opposite, will have the flood or high water at the same time.

But as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, therefore the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards these places to maintain the equilibrium; and, to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to places ninety degrees distant from the said zenith and nadir: consequently in those places where the moon appears in the horizon, the waters will have more liberty to descend towards the centre; and therefore in those places, the waters will be lowest.

From what has been said it follows, that if the surface of the earth was entirely covered with water, the ocean must have a prolate spheroidal figure, the longer diameter passing through the place where the moon is vertical, and the shorter where she appears in the horizon. And as the moon apparently shifts her place from east to west in moving round the earth every day, the longer diameter of the spheroid following her motion, there must be two floods and two ebbs in the length of a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours, fifty minutes. Hence we see the reason why the time of high-water is about fifty minutes later every day. That is, if it be high-water at eleven to-day, it will not be high-water till near fifty minutes after eleven to-morrow.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, viz. about the time of the new and full moon; and these are called spring-tides.

Because at these times both the sun and moon concur, or draw in the same right-line; and consequently the tides must be more elevated. When the two luminaries are in conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the water in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir: and when the sun and moon are in opposition, that is, when the earth is between them, while one makes high-water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same in the nadir and zenith.

The tides are less than ordinary twice every month; that is, about the times of the first and last quarters of the moon; and these are called neap-tides.

For in the quarters of the moon, the sun arises the water where the moon depresses it; and depresses where the moon raises the water; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions.

It is however necessary to be observed, that the spring-tides happen not precisely at the new and full moon, but a day or two after, when the attractions of the sun and moon have acted in the same direction for a considerable time. In the same manner the neap-tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the force of the moon's attraction has been lessened by that of the sun's for several days together.

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The spring-tides are greater about the time of the equinoxes, than at other times of the year; and the neap-tides are then less.

Because the longer diameter of the spheroid, or the two opposite floods, will at that time be in the earth's equator; and consequently will describe a great circle of the earth, by whose diurnal rotation those floods will move swifter, describing a great circle in the same time they used to describe a lesser circle parallel to the equator, and consequently the waters being impelled more forcibly against the shores, they must rise higher.

Such would be the phenomena of the tides if the whole surface of the earth was entirely covered with water: but as this is not the case, there being besides the continents, a multitude of islands, lying in the way of the tide, which interrupt its course; therefore in many places near the shores, a great variety of other appearances beside those already enumerated arise. These require particular solutions, in which the shores, freights, shoals, rocks, and other objects must be considered: a disquisition which requires much more room than can be spared in this Introduction. What has been said will however be sufficient to explain the theory of the tides, and enable the reader to pursue the enquiry and solve the difficulties that may arise with regard to any particular place.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. THE latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Those places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and those places which lie on the first meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Consequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the first meridian intersects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefit of the sun, in respect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year. For although the sun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the south, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the sun must always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the sun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole, short of 90 degrees (which is the greatest), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the sun enters the signs γ Aries and ζ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the sun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer that any place is to the equator, the less is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary. The circles which the sun describes in the heavens every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former case, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or short the day and night be at any one of these places, at any time of the year, it is then of

the same length at all the rest; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the sun's declination), all these places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The sun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics, once a year, but never any where else. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whose declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when he is in the nearest tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without setting; because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the sun is in the farthest tropic, he is for the same length of time without rising; because no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, he rises and sets there, as in other places; because all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or less cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the sun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal course must be in one or other of these circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemisphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longest day and shortest night is when the sun is in the northern tropic; and the shortest day and longest night is when the sun is in the southern tropic; because no circle of the sun's daily motion is so much above the horizon, and so little below it, as the northern tropic; and none so little above it, and so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the sun appears for some number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without setting; and at the opposite time of the year without rising; because some part of the ecliptic never sets in the former case, and as much of the opposite part never rises in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continuing presence or absence.

13. If a ship sets out from any port, and sails round the earth eastward to the same port again, let her take what time she will to do it in, the people in that ship, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port; because, by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get so much the sooner above the setting sun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a complete day of that sort at their return; without gaining one moment of absolute time more than is elapsed during their course, to the people at the port. If they sail westward they will reckon one day less than the people do who reside at the said port; because by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep him each particular day so much longer above their horizon, as answers to that day's course; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time.

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they sail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

S E C T I O N X I .

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

NATURE has divided the terraqueous globe into continents, islands, oceans, seas, lakes, rivers, &c. and these are called the natural divisions of the earth, in contradistinction to those imposed by the authority of mankind.

The two grand divisions of the terraqueous globe are land and water.

The land is divided into Continents, Islands, Peninsulas, Isthmus's, Promontories, or Capes, Mountains.

The water is divided into Oceans, Seas, Gulphs, Streights, Lakes, Rivers.

A continent, terra-firma, or main-land, is a very large tract of country, comprehending several contiguous empires, kingdoms, countries, and states. There are generally reckoned four continents, Europe, Asia, Africa and America; but the latter is commonly divided into two parts, called North and South America.

An island is a tract of land entirely surrounded with water, as Ireland.

A peninsula, is a district of country encompassed with water, except a small neck which joins it to some other land, as Africa.

An isthmus is a narrow neck of land connecting some peninsula to another tract of country, and forming the passage between them, as Suez, which joins Africa to Asia, which is 60 miles over.

A promontory or cape, is a head-land, generally of considerable height, shooting itself some distance into the sea, as Cape Horn.

A mountain is a part of the land more elevated than the adjacent country, and is thence visible at a greater distance than the neighbouring plains, as the Alps.

An ocean is a vast collection of waters, and bounded by the coasts of different countries. Geographers generally reckon five oceans, viz. the Northern, the Atlantic, the Pacific, the Indian, and the Southern ocean.

The Northern ocean stretches to the northward of Europe, Asia, and America, towards the north pole, and is about 3000 miles over.

The Atlantic ocean lies between the continents of Europe and Africa on the east, and America on the west. It is usually divided into two parts, one called the North Atlantic ocean, and the other the South Atlantic, or Ethiopic ocean. That part of the North Atlantic ocean lying between Europe and America, is often called the Western ocean, and is about 3000 miles wide.

The Pacific ocean, or as it is often called the South Sea, is bounded on the east by the western shores of America, and on the west by the eastern shores of Asia, and is 10,000 miles over.

The Indian ocean washes the shores of the eastern coast of Africa, and the southern coasts of Asia. The Indian islands, and New Guinea, bound it on the east, and it is 3000 miles wide.

The Southern ocean extends from the southern coasts of Africa, to the south-pole. It is bounded on the west by the eastern coasts of South America, and on the east by unknown lands, and is about 8500 miles over.

A sea, properly speaking, is a lesser collection of waters than an ocean; as the Mediterranean sea, the Baltic sea, &c. though it is sometimes used promiscuously with ocean, as the Pacific ocean is often stiled the South Sea.

A gulph or bay is a part of an ocean or sea contained between two shores; and is every where environed with land except its entrance, where it communicates with some other bay, sea, or ocean, as the bay of Biscay.

A streight is a narrow passage, forming a communication between a gulph and its neighbouring sea, or joining one part of the sea or ocean with another, as the Streights of Gibraltar.

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A river is a stream of water flowing chiefly from the mountains, and running in a long narrow channel or cavity, through the land, till it falls either into some lake, sea, or other river, which afterwards disembogues itself into the sea, as the Liffey.

To this description of the divisions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correspond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we shall subjoin a table, exhibiting the superficial content of the whole globe in square miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the seas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires and principal islands, which shall be placed as they are subordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square Miles.	Ilands.	Square Miles.	Ilands.	Square Miles.
The Globe	199,512,595	Hulpanonia	30,000	Skye	900
Seas and unknown Parts	169,522,026	Newfoundland	35,500	Lewis	880
The Habitable World *	38,990,569	Ceylon	27,730	Fuen	768
Europe	2,627,574	Ireland	27,457	Yvica	625
Afia	10,768,823	Formosa	17,000	Minorca	520
Africa	9,654,807	Anian	11,900	Rhodes	480
America	14,110,874	Gilolo	10,400	Cephalonia	420
Perfian Empire under Darius	1,650,000	Sicily	9400	Amboyna	400
Ruffian Empire in its utmost height	1,610,000	Timor	780c	Orkney Pomona	324
Ruffian	4,161,685	Sardinia	6600	Scio	300
Chinefe	1,749,000	Cyprus	6300	Martinico	260
Great Mogul	1,110,000	Jamaica	9500	Lemnos	220
Turkish	950,057	Flores	6000	Corfu	194
Prefent Perfian	600,000	Ceram	5400	Providence	168
		Breton	4000	Man	160
Borneo	228,000	Socatra	3600	Bornholm	160
Madagaifar	168,000	Candia	3230	Wight	150
Sumatra	129,000	Porto Rico	3200	Malta	150
Japan	118,000	Corfica	2520	Barbadoes	140
Great Britain	72,926	Zealand	1935	Zant	120
Celebes	68,400	Majorca	1400	Antigua	100
Manilla	58,500	St. Iago	1400	St. Christopher's	80
Iceland	46,000	Negropont	1300	St. Helena	80
Terra del Fuego	42,075	Tei eriff	1272	Guernfey	50
Mindinao	39,200	Gothland	1000	Jerfey	43
Cuba	38,400	Madeira	950	Bermudas	40
Java	38,250	St. Michael	920	Rhode	36

To thefe iflands may be added the following, which have lately been difcovered, or more fully explored. The exat dimensions of them are not afcertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeft, which is fuppoed to be nearly equal in fize to the whole continent of Europe.

- New Holland,
- New Guinea,
- New Zealand,
- New Caledonia,
- New Hebrides,
- Otaheite, or King George's Ifland,
- Friendly Iflands,
- Marquefas,
- Eafter, or Davis's Ifland.

* The number of inhabitants.

* The number of inhabitants computed at present to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the best calculations, is about 953 millions.

}	{	Europe contains	—	—	—	153 Millions
		Asia	—	—	—	500
		Africa	—	—	—	150
		America	—	—	—	150

Total 953 Millions.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is scarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure; not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the standard. Thus the common English mile differs from the statute mile, and the French have three sorts of leagues. We shall here give the miles of several countries compared with the English by Dr. Halley.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 3 furlongs.

Eleven miles Irish, are equal to fourteen English.

The Russian vorst is little more than $\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile is nearly 1 English.

The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Scotch mile is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Indian is almost three English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about $3\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common league is near 3 English, and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

P A R T II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes, in speaking of these countries, carried our historical researches beyond modern times; it was thought necessary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country we describe, to place before his eye a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a history of the world, we do not mean a mere list of dates, which, when taken by itself, is a thing extremely insignificant; but an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the causes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensably requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed according to the best chronologers in the year before Christ 4004; and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which hath been adopted by some chronologers and historians, but is of little real service. The sacred records have fully determined the question, that the world was not eternal, and also ascertained the time of its creation with great precision.*

* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the ante diluvian period only 1307 years, 349 short of the Hebrew bible computation, and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2262 years, which is 666 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.

It appears in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world before the flood was extremely populous, that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from off the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very considerable change on the soil and atmosphere of this globe, and gave them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which hath ever since made such havock in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge, the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity universally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the first monarchy whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprise it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during this early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable importance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they set themselves to oppress and destroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very considerable, since, in one of these expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, set upon him in his retreat, and after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged, by a famine, to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every stroke discovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most

* According to Dr. Playfair's chronological tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Christ 2060, and his being called out of Urr at 1986.

*a good deal lost by the
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brilliant colours. He is surrounded with a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes, who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unless it be Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired by the spirit of conquest, extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominions, and lays the foundation of that monarchy, assisted by his enterprising successor Semiramis, which, under the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, and grand-son of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeed a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Christian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was soon dissolved; and the ancient Greeks, who seem at this time to have been as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, relapsed into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of God's chosen people, the Israelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of curious events, which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version, 1794 years before Christ, but according to the Hebrew Chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the World 2315. This is a remarkable æra with respect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and

B. C. 1850.

B. C. 1689.

concludes that period of time which the Greeks considered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and consider what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to those matters. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude, that all were in that situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in points of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America, or the Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations therefore who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed, that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasture only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade: and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal is weighed in presence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was laid aside, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the second from Abraham. The *reshtab*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears, from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and also a cotemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the lux-

uries than the conveniences of life, we shall have reason to conclude, that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement: for people do not think of luxuries, until the useful arts have made high advancement among them.

In speaking of commerce, we ought carefully to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea: which last kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. Had the descendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wise ancestors, it is improbable that they should have ventured on navigating the open seas so soon as we find they did. That branch of his posterity, who settled on the coasts of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce: they were distinguished by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, signifies *merchants*, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to better their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and, with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children: and if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others; astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence the division of a month. Those people again who lived by agriculture, and who had gotten among them the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the *solar year*, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offered a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to one another? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. The descendants of Noah, who removed at a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connection with the civilised part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. This, however, is far from being the case: we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of a Ninias, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of this empire, for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject, is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1492; by his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris and his immediate successors, was in all probability the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and according to the best calculation is supposed to have contained twenty-seven millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites, without gratifying our curiosity: for, from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspire after wisdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilise the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what situations they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental encounters, and with little knowledge of those to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who succeeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

Whilst these princes used their endeavours for civilising this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Solon, one of those uncommon geniuses, who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions, which must render them a prey to one another, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preservation. Two deputies from each of these cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed, and finally determined. Amphictyon likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the

Amphictyons the care of the temple of Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed in it. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and, by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire. Considering the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Christ 1322, the Isthmian games were instituted at Corinth; and 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops.

The Greek states, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act in concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the community. The first of these

B. C. was the obscure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the

1263. commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that several sail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about on different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great labour: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not less considerable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition, to that against

B. C. Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta,

1184. who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable resemblance between the political situation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was in all respects

extremely unfavourable: each particular state was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyony. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, that for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus king of Attica, about the year before Christ 1234, had acquired a great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and he conceived, that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and even to increase, his popularity among the peasants and artisans: he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall, common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by establishing common rights of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and of Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occasioned so much confusion, by being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes; the nobles, the artisans, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of persons. This plan of politics was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was so much the more remarkable, as it happened soon after that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and desired a mortal sovereign. B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian states, much about the same time, assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the last sovereign being overcome in single combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished the regal power. Till the days,

however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of seven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican spirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our principal attention. We have seen a tender shoot of liberty spring up in the city of Athens, upon the decease of Codrus, its last sovereign. This shoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleasant to observe its progress. The Athenians by abolishing the name of king, did not

B. C. entirely subvert the legal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same rights
1070. which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became sensible, that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same hands, was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a

B. C. more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a fresh reduction of the power of their archons: and it was at length determined that nine
684. annual magistrates should be appointed for this office. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians, in the first flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiser part of the state, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned into confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon, who died in the year before Christ 549. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue, and wisdom more than human, by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length however, the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to new model the political law; and his establishments on this head remained among

the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the guilt of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny, and the most serious deliberation.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor instructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great lines of it at least ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this sort. Sparta, like the other states of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is said to be the first king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length, the two brothers Euristhenes and Procles, getting possession of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and what is extremely singular, their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Christian æra. The Spartan government, however, did not take that singular form which renders it so remarkable, until the time of Læurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of policy devised by Læurgus, agreed with that already described, in comprehending a senate and assembly of the people, and in general in all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution arose from this, that in all laws, Læurgus had at least as much respect to war, as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money, they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks, capable of bearing arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardship, and they behaved in it with a spirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must now cast our eyes on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires, of which

B. C. we have so long lost sight. We have already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period, to the dissolution of their government by Cambyfes of Persia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws, and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces governor of Media, and Belshis governor of Babylon, conspire against their sovereign, set fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus perished, B. C. 820, and divide between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway of Asia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Assyria anno B. C. 777, and Shalmaneser, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten Tribes captive into Assyria and Media, B. C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, also in the year B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and mastered all the countries around him.

B. C. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon and reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, however, that we should enter on the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics? But the æra of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, beside delivering the Jews from their captivity, because, with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be supposed to finish. Let us consider then the genius of the Assyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and sciences; and if possible, discover what progress they had made in those acquisitions, which are most subservient to the interests of society.

The taste for the great and magnificent, seems to have been the prevailing character of these nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of architecture. There are no vestiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids, stupendous fabrics, still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are supposed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and two thousand six hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. The apex is 13 feet square. The second stands on as much ground as the first, but is 40 feet lower. It was a superstition among this people, derived from the earliest times, that even after death the soul continued

in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body such vegetables as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as these superstitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably secure a safe and comfortable retreat for their souls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the East, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really superb and magnificent structures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the constructing of vaults. The arts, in which these nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they had all along continued to bestow their principal attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of rational and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that according to the testimony of sacred and profane writers, the absurd reveries of magic and astrology, which always decrease in proportion to the advancement of true science, were in high esteem among them, during the latest periods of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the necessaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarism, and of consequence brave and warlike. This was still more easy in the infancy of the military art: when strength and courage were the only circumstances which gave the advantage to one nation over another; when, properly speaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been discovered to be so useful in stopping the progress of a victorious enemy; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we must now turn our attention to other objects.

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, considered in itself, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exercise those virtues, which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which seldom fails to torment the breast of tyrants, led Darius (at the instigation of Hippias who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians burning the city of Sardis), to send forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible foldiers, who under Cyrus, had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens on the contrary, teemed with great men, whose minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to

mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in ancient writers.

B. C. Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an immense
480. army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered, by some ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be ascertained: but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the absurd practice of the eastern nations, of encumbering their camp with a superfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, and so well did they know that, "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." But though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is in a great measure, to this war, that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired an immensity of Persian gold; it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connection with the Persians, after the conclusion of it, which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough

B. C. to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and
431. drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful), rendered himself the absolute master of Greece,

B. C. by the battle of Cheronææ. But this conquest is one of the first we meet
338. with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deeply, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronææ had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue, which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators, in most of their states, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long survive the battle of Cheronææ. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for ex-

B. C. piring liberty. But they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure
on the side of Greece, Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the

334. head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in over-running and subduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been de-

scribed by many authors both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of æras and events too complicated for our present purpose, and even too uninteresting. After considering therefore the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

The bare names of illustrious men, who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympius, and the Ephefian Diana, are the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who settled in Asia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timantheus, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian æra, the tragic poets Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing. Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes, to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtue of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression. But the Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors; and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effect of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians: the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe.

B. C. The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, when we view
 753. him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme insignificance. But when we consider him as the founder of an empire as extensive as the world, and whose progress and decline have occasioned the two greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being interested in his conduct. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became masters of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman state, whereby Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from the very circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any considerable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Romans by the mimic experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both the maxims by means of which the Roman state arrived at such a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, instantly transferred the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the Senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly passions of his followers: and, after a long reign spent in promoting the civil or military interests of his country, was, according to the most probable conjecture, privately assassinated by some of the members of that senate, which he himself had instituted.

The successors of Romulus were all very extraordinary personages. Numa, who came next to him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by the most cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the insolence of his son Sextus Tarquinius who, by dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and with it the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans however were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprises. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magistrates called consuls, who without creating the same jealousy, succeeded to all the power of their sovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The consuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were desirous of signalizing their reign by some great action: each vied with those who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out against some new enemy. When we add to this, that

the people, naturally warlike, were inspired to deeds of valour by every consideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all soldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be surpris'd, that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power all over Italy.

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had been founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean in Africa, some time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness.

Carthage, in this design, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Besides that of Africa, which she almost entirely possessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side, through the Straits. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities between these rival states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was an inconsiderable state; but she was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to mention all the transactions of these wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintains in the senate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved, and returns to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Cathaginian was the most inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred against the Romans, and having settled the intestine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inspire his son, though not nine years old, with his own sentiments. For this purpose he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his son to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans; the courageous boy not only consented to go, but conjured his father by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you swear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crosses the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily

sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw something more divine in the young Scipio. The success of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine

B. C. extraction, and held converse with the gods. At the age of four-and-twenty,

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he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and sees her armies de-

B. C.

201.

feated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hostages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the consent of the Roman people.

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Achæans, and Beotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The Etolians were the most considerable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours. Philip, the present monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece became their dependants. The Etolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at this time the most powerful monarch in the East, and the successor to the dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Etolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and, having vanquished him by sea and land,

B. C.

190.

compel him to submit to an infamous treaty.

In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which denomination however, under

a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred, that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the space of 26 years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men, whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous, and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not a spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to shew himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, at last was compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all secure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps, began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. B. C. Gallia Narbonensis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, 106. Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name was so terrible in Africa, then made the North of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deserts, B. C. less formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the 102. world, there subsisted an internal war within her walls. This war had subsisted from the first periods of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on this subject arose between them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous consequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with some of their privileges to satisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the state, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eastern courts, and sported with every thing just and honourable, in order to obtain them, the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name; the better sort were too weakly and effeminate to submit to the rigours of military discipline, and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little respect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, how-

ever, which required their keeping on foot several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

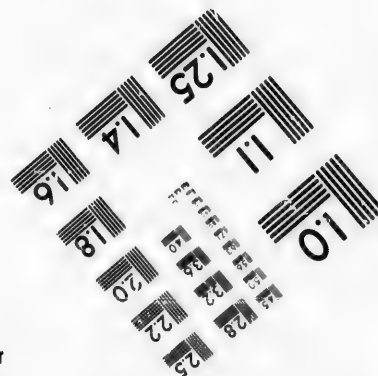
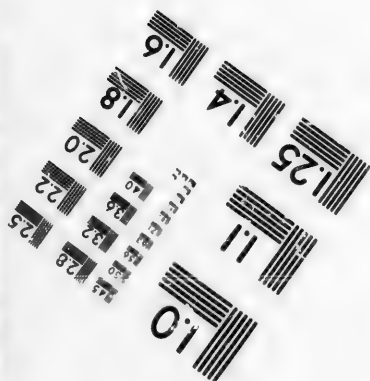
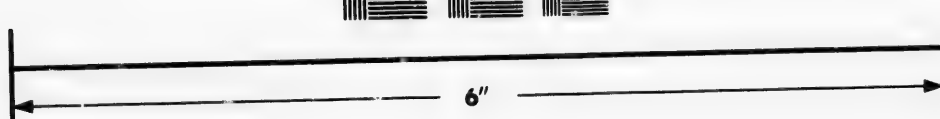
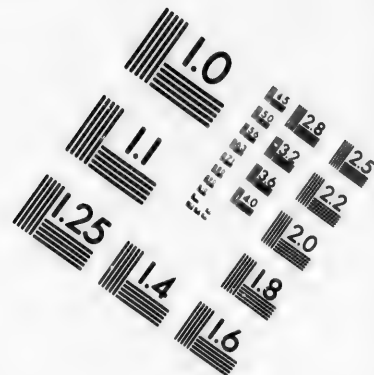
Julius Cæsar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar appears victorious almost at the same time all over the world: in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius think to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate-house. But, though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Mark Anthony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus nor Cassius to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and Octavius under the name of Augustus, and title of emperor, remained the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations; and while it was unknown who should be master at Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory, they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all quarters of the known world, crowd to make their submissions. *Æthiopia* sues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship; *India* seeks his alliance; *Pannonia* acknowledges him; *Germany* dreads him; and the *Wefer* receives his laws. Victorious by sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jesus Christ comes into the world, four years before the common æra.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the consular government was established, learning and the arts made very little progress at Rome. Agriculture and the cultivation of arms principally engaged their attention. An adequate idea may be formed of the little value they placed upon works of art by the edict of Mummius, who having destroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the most eminent artists of Greece to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were lost in the passage, they should be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the sciences in more request at Rome. Some of the ablest philosophers of Greece coming to Rome in the time of Cato the Elder, he ordered them to depart the city, lest the minds of the youth should be corrupted by philosophy, and rendered too soft for military achievements. They had for a long series of years no written laws at Rome: those of Solon, brought from Greece, were the first that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, because they were written in twelve departments. These constituted the civil law of the Romans. They were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the senate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors.

After the destruction of Carthage and the states of Greece, when the Romans had no rival to fear, they applied themselves to cultivate the arts of peace. The

curious remains of the Grecian magnificence, which were sent to Rome, inspired them with a desire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artists. Whatever was elegant, whatever was curious, whatever was beautiful, might be consulted without trouble or expence. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artists, never equalled the finished works of their masters. Eloquence had been long studied in Rome; but it did not reach its greatest height till Cicero appeared. His orations are inferior only to those of Demosthenes. Cicero gave to eloquence all the graces of which it is susceptible, without lessening its solidity and gravity. He gave candour and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown. He was to Rome what Demosthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country; they both carried eloquence to the highest perfection it ever attained. The poetry of Virgil is equal to any thing produced by the Greeks, except the *Iliad* of Homer. Like the prose of Demosthenes, the verses of Homer are inimitable: the Grecian bard still remained without an equal. But if Virgil fell short of the majesty of Homer, Horace excelled all that went before him in his satires and epistles; indeed he had no model in that species of writing, and to this day continues without a rival. His odes have not indeed the majesty and sublimity of Pindar; but they abound in beauties of another kind; a delicacy of sentiment, a smooth harmonious flow of verse, and the most lively images conveyed in the correctest language. Rome abounded in historians; and Sallust has, not without reason, been placed at their head. He is generally ranked with Thucydides; and some have not scrupled to consider him as the most excellent historian of antiquity. The brevity of his style is remarkable; it proceeded from the lively vigour of his imagination. His descriptions, his characters, his harangues, are equally beautiful; he succeeds alike in all: nothing can be added to their force, spirit, and eloquence. Livy is one of those few writers who have rendered their names immortal. Throughout his whole history, there reigns an eloquence perfect in every kind. His style, though varied to infinity, is every where equal: simple without meanness; elegant and florid without affectation; great and sublime without being tumid; full of force and sweetness; always clear and always intelligible. Livy possesses all the ease of Herodotus; and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and more sentimental. Tacitus did not flourish till after the reign of Augustus; nor has his style the purity of the writers in that age of literary competition. The part of his history which contains the reign of Tiberius, has always been considered as his master-piece. There was no necessity for the abilities of a great writer to paint the vices of Caligula, the stupidity of Claudius, or the cruelties of Nero; but to write the life of Tiberius required the genius of Tacitus, who could unravel all the intrigues of the cabinet, assign the real causes of events, and withdraw the veil of deception, which concealed from the eyes of the public the real motives and springs of action. The Romans never applied themselves greatly to philosophy. Lucretius, who delivered, in spirited versification, the opinions of Epicurus, is the only philosopher, except Cicero, whose writings have reached our times: a close and assiduous search into the operations of nature, was not perhaps agreeable to the genius of the Romans. In tragedy and comedy, the Romans never produced any thing that can bear the least comparison with the writers of Greece. The tragic poets hardly deserve to be mentioned. Plautus and Terence are justly placed at the head of the comic poets of Rome; but neither were possessed of the *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, which is essential to comedy, and which distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and of our Shakspeare.





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We now return to our history, and are arrived at an æra, which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties; and, while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recall to our mind the situation of Turkey at present. It is of no importance therefore to consider the character of the emperors, since they had no power but what arose from a mercenary standing army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the transactions of the court, which were directed with that caprice, and cruelty, and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors, to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline, than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans, are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners of their new masters. These however were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being over-awed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumstance which could support them under these complicated calamities, was the hope of seeing better days.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated,

or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (says an elegant historian, in describing this scene of desolation) with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred, and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. This occasioned a prodigious alteration. The western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the East, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Western Empire*, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the *Eastern Empire*), weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a Barbarian chieftain, is seated on the throne of the Cæsars. These irruptions into the empire were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The ancient discipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was so efficacious, that the remains of it descended to their successors, and must have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny, and the universal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations who overcame them.

Towards the close of the sixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were masters of the southern, and more fertile provinces of Britain: the Franks another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any vestige of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts, or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dresses, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

+ The Emperor of the East, who was the
representative of the East, and the
of Russia, and Constantinople.

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite: some of them could scarcely read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the same century, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and even increased; so that a still greater degree of ignorance and barbarism prevailed throughout Europe.

A new division of property gradually introduced a new species of government formerly unknown; which singular institution is now distinguished by the name of the *Feudal System*. The king, or general, who led the Barbarians to conquest, parcelled out the lands of the vanquished among his chief officers, binding those on whom they were bestowed to follow his standard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the sovereign, and in distributing portions of their lands among their dependants, annexed the same condition to the grant. But though this system seemed to be admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a system of oppression.

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. They were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They were slaves fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter*.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty made such a happy change in the condition of mankind, as roused them from that stupidity and inaction into which they had been sunk by the wretchedness of their former state. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the eastern or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew

* This Gothic system still prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, some relics of those Gothic institutions are perceivable at this day.

that of the West. In this city, some remains of literature and science were preserved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where some relish for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, opened a communication between Europe and the East. Constantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies, in their way to Palestine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions was conquest, and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariners compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with the East, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in those ages by the name of Lombards. Companies, or societies of Lombard merchants, settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of these companies settled in London; and from hence the name of Lombard Street was derived.

While the Italians in the south of Europe cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those large countries of Germany and Flanders, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanseatic League*; which became so formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores; and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such extent as well as advantage, as diffused among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, the most populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flourishing state of these provinces, of which he discovered the

A. D. true cause, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his own subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artisans to settle in his dominions, as well as by many wise laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and first turned the active and enterprising genius of his people towards those arts which have raised the English to the first rank, among commercial nations.

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the crusades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the great khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be some check upon the Turks, who had been such enemies to the Christian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, serving occasionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the finest countries of Asia.

The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profession of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of these infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so industrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests reached to the most remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gunpowder and artillery; the discovery made by a German chemist being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of the East Indies, inspired their countrymen with a spirit of adventure and discovery, and were the first that rendered a passage thither by sea, probable and practicable. The Portuguese had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At first they contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coast of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress southward, they, in the year 1497, were so fortunate as to sail beyond the cape, which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his schemes successively before the courts of France, England and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the

spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years attendance, he at length succeeded, through the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed upon to patronise him, by the representation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematical knowledge. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of success in executing the plan which he proposed. Perez therefore so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she entirely entered into the scheme, and even generously offered, to the honour of her sex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the sum that was requisite, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon one of the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; and his sailors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening in case of refusal to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprise that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and which he soon discovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness into which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. These discoveries were succeeded by others of unspeakable benefit to mankind. Learning now awoke from her slumber of near twelve centuries, and the inhabitants of Europe became another people. The art of printing, which spreads with such rapidity from country to country the wisdom and follies of mankind, was invented: artillery and engineering were brought to perfection, and totally changed the operations of war. Every maritime nation fitted out fleets for making discoveries, and the whole world became connected by commerce. The reformation in religion restored liberty to genius; the human mind was released from the shackles of superstition, which had long silenced reason, and prevented the thinking faculty from exerting its powers. The arts and sciences began to be cultivated, literature was esteemed; commerce was every day improved, and riches flowed into Europe from every quarter. New principles of action, and new systems of conduct, were introduced at this æra of mental improvement: but the powers of the human mind are unfolded only by slow degrees. Many prejudices were to be removed, many abuses corrected, and many difficulties surmounted, before the sciences could appear in their genuine lustre; for the principles of the arts and sciences were forgotten: truth and beauty seem indeed to have been withdrawn from the face of nature, before her genuine graces can be discovered. A succession of great geniuses is necessary to explore the hidden paths of true philosophy.

The first studies that engaged mankind at the revival of learning, were languages and history. The human mind, released from barbarism, grew eager to collect ideas; but was then incapable of acquiring them in a regular order. Memory, therefore, was the first faculty cultivated; because the most easily satisfied, and the knowledge it procures the most easily attained. Hence proceeded that swarm of scholars, so deeply skilled in the learned languages as to neglect their own; who knew every thing of the ancients but their graces, and who prided themselves with the pomp of learning. An inventive genius is always dissatisfied with its own province, because it sees much farther than it reaches; and the most penetrating minds often find in themselves a secret rigorous judge, which the approbation of others may silence for a while, but can never corrupt. We need not therefore be surprised that these scholars should boast so highly of their pompous province, though it often appears ridiculous, and sometimes barbarous. Erudition was then absolutely necessary; it paved the way to polite learning.

But this fondness for erudition did not long continue. The learned were soon convinced, that beautiful thoughts lost nothing by being clothed in a living language; and hence they endeavoured to express in their own tongues, what the ancients had delivered in theirs. Thus the imagination of the moderns was gradually kindled up by that of the ancients; and produced all the noble performances in the last and present centuries in eloquence, history, and poetry.

The arts of elegance are so closely connected with polite learning, that a genius for cultivating the one, leads to the improvement of the other. The various works of the ancients were no sooner carefully examined, than judicious artists were struck with those obvious master-pieces of antiquity, which had escaped the fury of Gothic barbarity. But the works of Praxiteles and Phidias could only be imitated but by exact copies. Hence Raphael, and Michael Angelo, brought their art to a degree of perfection which has not been since exceeded.

The progress of philosophy was much slower than that of the polite arts. Most of the works of the ancients were lost; and the few that remained, being imperfect or spoiled by time, could give but very uncertain and imperfect glimmerings of so diffusive a subject. The face of nature is the primary book of philosophers, and the moderns were obliged to study it: the ancients could not save them the labour. But philosophy had other difficulties that retarded its progress; ignorance, a blind admiration for antiquity, and superstitious bigotry, joined in obscuring the light of reason, and had almost stifled the genuine rays of science in their dawn.

Whilst ignorant or malevolent enemies therefore declared open war with science, philosophy retreated under the covert of some extraordinary men, who, without entertaining the dangerous ambition of unveiling the eyes of their cotemporaries, prepared in shade and silence that light, which afterwards, by insensible degrees, enlightened the world.

By this prudent method the labours of the learned were at last crowned with success; the rays of science dispelled the night of ignorance, and philosophy triumphed over the chicanery of the schools. In this noble contest, the English had the greatest share: they were at once the champions of liberty and learning; and, to their discoveries and penetrating sagacity, the world is principally indebted for the present perfection of literature. In the profound parts of science they were never surpassed, perhaps never equalled: they demolished the systems which imagination had built on the foundations of sophistry, followed nature through her intricate mazes, and established philosophy on the solid basis of truth.

INTRODUCTION.

81

The 15th and 16th centuries were thus distinguished for so many important discoveries. "It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we have given some account in the history of each particular state in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto spent their force. The principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations."

From all which it seems extremely certain, that the concurrence of so many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no less certain, that, in contending for it, they must weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending even their just possessions. The partial conquests they may make are extremely evanescent; instead of promoting, they rather oppose their designs; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been so often executed by slow reiterated efforts, as in the course of a few years, and sometimes by a single expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of destroying the rights of his subjects; he may proceed by slow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it is completed, his successor may pursue the same steps, and avail himself of what was done before him. But external conquests cannot be concealed; they generally occasion more fear than hurt, and are almost always less solid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occasion to, by which the prince who, by misfortune, has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the last extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the best established in the science of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The states of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Persian invasions, exhibit the same truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the most considerable of these little societies, but in its turn imbibed the frenzy of conquest, and in its turn too was reduced by this frenzy to the utmost misery and distress*. The modern examples are so well known, that it is almost unnecessary to mention them. Who does not know that the house of Austria† excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empress queen would never have become the object of compassion. France affords an example not less striking. The nerves of that kingdom were strained so far beyond their strength, by an ambitious monarch, that it seemed

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* The reader who would see this subject fully illustrated, may look at Isocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the most finished models of ancient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, several states in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vast empires of Mexico and Peru in South America, were, at the time of the Reformation, governed by Charles V. of the house of Austria: territories which, though exceeding in riches and extent the most powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a scene of hostility against his neighbours. One of his successors, the late empress queen, and the representative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only stripped of her dominions, but reduced so low as to be in the want of necessaries; and contributions were actually raised for her in Great Britain, whose king George the II. engaged in her cause, and at the expence of the nation reinstated her upon the imperial throne.

hardly possible they should acquire their natural tone in the course of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatness of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not slow and gradual: but the British cabinet, in agitating a civil war with the North Americans, hath greatly contributed to restore and augment their naval power.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain, for a long time, enjoyed the greatest degree of prosperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to have been the more attentive to preserve so brilliant an existence. A great empire cannot be continued in a happy situation, but by wisdom and moderation. The unhappy contest of Great Britain with the American colonies, through the folly, arrogance, or arbitrary designs of her then ministers of state, has plunged her into the greatest difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to a prodigious height; and her taxes in consequence greatly increased. Happy will it be, if the present peace with America, and with the European powers with whom she has been involved in war, from her ever-to-be-lamented contest with the colonies, should again restore her to prosperity and tranquillity.

The experience she has had of the folly of foreign conquests, and of her too great attention to the counsels of mercantile monopolists, will all lead her to cultivate the numerous advantages she already possesses; and by a noble and enlightened policy, avoid those prejudices which have so long divided the interests of the sister kingdoms, to the peculiar injury of Ireland, and to the general loss of the empire.

P A R T III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever roused the attention of mankind: but they being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the sublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to those nations whose religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular passions, of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven respecting this important object. In deducing the history of religion, therefore, we must make the same distinction, which we have hitherto observed, in tracing the progress of arts, sciences, and of civilization among mankind. We must separate what is human from what is divine, what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unassisted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this distinction we find, that in the first ages of the world, the religion of the eastern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine source, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, these began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obscured, and among those tribes which separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this situation a particular people were selected by God himself, to be the depositaries of his law and worship; but the rest of mankind were left to form hypo-

theses upon these subjects, which were more or less perfect according to an infinity of circumstances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The most common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longest, and extended the widest, was **POLYTHEISM**, or the doctrine of a plurality of Gods. The rage of system, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occasioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this species of worship. For without entering into a minute detail, it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the subject; and what is said upon it in general, must always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems neither to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built therefore solely upon sentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to the combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, it might likewise be the case of those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established, the propitious and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names, and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For in general the gods of the ancients gave abundant proofs of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshiped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks, entertained nearly the same notions of gods and religion, with those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical societies, whose principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, also had theirs; and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in good fellowship, without interfering or jostling with one another.

The introduction of Christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious sentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this sublime subject. It is sufficient to observe here, that a religion, which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no association with false gods, must either be altogether destroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the case. Christianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the sublimity of its doctrines, and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised. But in time it became depraved by the introduction of worldly maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on those who had established it, first occasioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and afterwards the bishop of Rome, over all the members of the Christian world. It is impossible to describe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant causes, some of which were extremely delicate, by which this species of universal monarchy was established. The bishops of Rome by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors, then residing in Constantinople; and by availing themselves of every circumstance which Fortune threw in their way, slowly erected the fabric of their power, at first an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The causes of its dissolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The most efficacious were the invention of Printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made its way into Europe. The desire natural to sovereigns of delivering themselves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects, the immense wealth which had been diverted to the service of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conspired with the ardour of the first reformers, and hastened the progress of the reformation. The unreasonableness of the claims of the church of Rome was demonstrated; and the Reformation begun by Luther in Germany in the year 1517, and which took place in England A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil, as well as the religious rights of mankind.

We shall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

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ROPE.

POLITICAL STRENGTH OF EUROPE.

General View of the Relative Political Strength of the Nations of Europe; extracted from the Work of M. Aug. Fred. W. Crome.

Centuries.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	32.	33.	34.	35.	36.	37.	38.	39.	40.	41.	42.	43.	44.	45.	46.	47.	48.	49.	50.	51.	52.	53.	54.	55.	56.	57.	58.	59.	60.	61.	62.	63.	64.	65.	66.	67.	68.	69.	70.	71.	72.	73.	74.	75.	76.	77.	78.	79.	80.	81.	82.	83.	84.	85.	86.	87.	88.	89.	90.	91.	92.	93.	94.	95.	96.	97.	98.	99.	100.	101.	102.	103.	104.	105.	106.	107.	108.	109.	110.	111.	112.	113.	114.	115.	116.	117.	118.	119.	120.	121.	122.	123.	124.	125.	126.	127.	128.	129.	130.	131.	132.	133.	134.	135.	136.	137.	138.	139.	140.	141.	142.	143.	144.	145.	146.	147.	148.	149.	150.	151.	152.	153.	154.	155.	156.	157.	158.	159.	160.	161.	162.	163.	164.	165.	166.	167.	168.	169.	170.	171.	172.	173.	174.	175.	176.	177.	178.	179.	180.	181.	182.	183.	184.	185.	186.	187.	188.	189.	190.	191.	192.	193.	194.	195.	196.	197.	198.	199.	200.	201.	202.	203.	204.	205.	206.	207.	208.	209.	210.	211.	212.	213.	214.	215.	216.	217.	218.	219.	220.	221.	222.	223.	224.	225.	226.	227.	228.	229.	230.	231.	232.	233.	234.	235.	236.	237.	238.	239.	240.	241.	242.	243.	244.	245.	246.	247.	248.	249.	250.	251.	252.	253.	254.	255.	256.	257.	258.	259.	260.	261.	262.	263.	264.	265.	266.	267.	268.	269.	270.	271.	272.	273.	274.	275.	276.	277.	278.	279.	280.	281.	282.	283.	284.	285.	286.	287.	288.	289.	290.	291.	292.	293.	294.	295.	296.	297.	298.	299.	300.	301.	302.	303.	304.	305.	306.	307.	308.	309.	310.	311.	312.	313.	314.	315.	316.	317.	318.	319.	320.	321.	322.	323.	324.	325.	326.	327.	328.	329.	330.	331.	332.	333.	334.	335.	336.	337.	338.	339.	340.	341.	342.	343.	344.	345.	346.	347.	348.	349.	350.	351.	352.	353.	354.	355.	356.	357.	358.	359.	360.	361.	362.	363.	364.	365.	366.	367.	368.	369.	370.	371.	372.	373.	374.	375.	376.	377.	378.	379.	380.	381.	382.	383.	384.	385.	386.	387.	388.	389.	390.	391.	392.	393.	394.	395.	396.	397.	398.	399.	400.	401.	402.	403.	404.	405.	406.	407.	408.	409.	410.	411.	412.	413.	414.	415.	416.	417.	418.	419.	420.	421.	422.	423.	424.	425.	426.	427.	428.	429.	430.	431.	432.	433.	434.	435.	436.	437.	438.	439.	440.	441.	442.	443.	444.	445.	446.	447.	448.	449.	450.	451.	452.	453.	454.	455.	456.	457.	458.	459.	460.	461.	462.	463.	464.	465.	466.	467.	468.	469.	470.	471.	472.	473.	474.	475.	476.	477.	478.	479.	480.	481.	482.	483.	484.	485.	486.	487.	488.	489.	490.	491.	492.	493.	494.	495.	496.	497.	498.	499.	500.	501.	502.	503.	504.	505.	506.	507.	508.	509.	510.	511.	512.	513.	514.	515.	516.	517.	518.	519.	520.	521.	522.	523.	524.	525.	526.	527.	528.	529.	530.	531.	532.	533.	534.	535.	536.	537.	538.	539.	540.	541.	542.	543.	544.	545.	546.	547.	548.	549.	550.	551.	552.	553.	554.	555.	556.	557.	558.	559.	560.	561.	562.	563.	564.	565.	566.	567.	568.	569.	570.	571.	572.	573.	574.	575.	576.	577.	578.	579.	580.	581.	582.	583.	584.	585.	586.	587.	588.	589.	590.	591.	592.	593.	594.	595.	596.	597.	598.	599.	600.	601.	602.	603.	604.	605.	606.	607.	608.	609.	610.	611.	612.	613.	614.	615.	616.	617.	618.	619.	620.	621.	622.	623.	624.	625.	626.	627.	628.	629.	630.	631.	632.	633.	634.	635.	636.	637.	638.	639.	640.	641.	642.	643.	644.	645.	646.	647.	648.	649.	650.	651.	652.	653.	654.	655.	656.	657.	658.	659.	660.	661.	662.	663.	664.	665.	666.	667.	668.	669.	670.	671.	672.	673.	674.	675.	676.	677.	678.	679.	680.	681.	682.	683.	684.	685.	686.	687.	688.	689.	690.	691.	692.	693.	694.	695.	696.	697.	698.	699.	700.	701.	702.	703.	704.	705.	706.	707.	708.	709.	710.	711.	712.	713.	714.	715.	716.	717.	718.	719.	720.	721.	722.	723.	724.	725.	726.	727.	728.	729.	730.	731.	732.	733.	734.	735.	736.	737.	738.	739.	740.	741.	742.	743.	744.	745.	746.	747.	748.	749.	750.	751.	752.	753.	754.	755.	756.	757.	758.	759.	760.	761.	762.	763.	764.	765.	766.	767.	768.	769.	770.	771.	772.	773.	774.	775.	776.	777.	778.	779.	780.	781.	782.	783.	784.	785.	786.	787.	788.	789.	790.	791.	792.	793.	794.	795.	796.	797.	798.	799.	800.	801.	802.	803.	804.	805.	806.	807.	808.	809.	810.	811.	812.	813.	814.	815.	816.	817.	818.	819.	820.	821.	822.	823.	824.	825.	826.	827.	828.	829.	830.	831.	832.	833.	834.	835.	836.	837.	838.	839.	840.	841.	842.	843.	844.	845.	846.	847.	848.	849.	850.	851.	852.	853.	854.	855.	856.	857.	858.	859.	860.	861.	862.	863.	864.	865.	866.	867.	868.	869.	870.	871.	872.	873.	874.	875.	876.	877.	878.	879.	880.	881.	882.	883.	884.	885.	886.	887.	888.	889.	890.	891.	892.	893.	894.	895.	896.	897.	898.	899.	900.	901.	902.	903.	904.	905.	906.	907.	908.	909.	910.	911.	912.	913.	914.	915.	916.	917.	918.	919.	920.	921.	922.	923.	924.	925.	926.	927.	928.	929.	930.	931.	932.	933.	934.	935.	936.	937.	938.	939.	940.	941.	942.	943.	944.	945.	946.	947.	948.	949.	950.	951.	952.	953.	954.	955.	956.	957.	958.	959.	960.	961.	962.	963.	964.	965.	966.	967.	968.	969.	970.	971.	972.	973.	974.	975.	976.	977.	978.	979.	980.	981.	982.	983.	984.	985.	986.	987.	988.	989.	990.	991.	992.	993.	994.	995.	996.	997.	998.	999.	1000.
1. Republic of San Marino,																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their public duties. If we except a few fanatical societies, whose principles do not agree with the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their private opinions; their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, had theirs; and there was room enough in the universe for both. The introduction of Christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, and the purity of his character, and by explaining the service of God, produced a total alteration in their religious sentiments and the place for handling this sublime subject. It is sufficient to say, that the religion, which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which was in opposition with false gods, must either be altogether destroyed, or it must bring belief of mankind. The latter was the case. Christianity, by its elevation of the civilized part of mankind, by the sublimity of its doctrine, required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by its own power, by which it was characterized. But in time it became depraved, and of worldly maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its founder, the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church began with the pope, on those who had established it, first occasioned the elevation of the clergy, and afterwards of the bishop of Rome, the Christian world. It is impossible to describe, within our limits, the concomitant causes, some of which were extremely delicate, and of universal monarchy was established. The bishops of Rome, from the control of the Roman emperors, then residing in Italy, availing themselves of every circumstance which Fortune threw in their way, erected the fabric of their power, at first an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The causes of its dissolution operated with greater activity. The most efficacious were the progress of the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which made its way into Europe. The desire natural to man, of getting rid of themselves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying the immense wealth which had been diverted to the service of the pope, to the progress of the reformation. The unreasonableness of the pope of Rome was demonstrated; and the Reformation begun by Luther in the year 1517, and which took place in England A. D. 1534, was highly favourable to the civil, as well as the religious rights of mankind.

We shall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with

46

FRANCE.

Paris papers to Friday have arrived.

The *Moniteur* contains a Royal Ordinance, appointing a public exhibition to take place of the products of French industry, at periods to be determined by his Majesty, the intervals between which are not to exceed four years. The first exhibition was held in 1819, the second in 1823, the third in 1827, the fourth in 1831, the fifth in 1835, the sixth in 1839, the seventh in 1843, the eighth in 1847, the ninth in 1851, the tenth in 1855, the eleventh in 1859, the twelfth in 1863, the thirteenth in 1867, the fourteenth in 1871, the fifteenth in 1875, the sixteenth in 1879, the seventeenth in 1883, the eighteenth in 1887, the nineteenth in 1891, the twentieth in 1895, the twenty-first in 1899, the twenty-second in 1903, the twenty-third in 1907, the twenty-fourth in 1911, the twenty-fifth in 1915, the twenty-sixth in 1919, the twenty-seventh in 1923, the twenty-eighth in 1927, the twenty-ninth in 1931, the thirtieth in 1935, the thirty-first in 1939, the thirty-second in 1943, the thirty-third in 1947, the thirty-fourth in 1951, the thirty-fifth in 1955, the thirty-sixth in 1959, the thirty-seventh in 1963, the thirty-eighth in 1967, the thirty-ninth in 1971, the fortieth in 1975, the forty-first in 1979, the forty-second in 1983, the forty-third in 1987, the forty-fourth in 1991, the forty-fifth in 1995, the forty-sixth in 1999, the forty-seventh in 2003, the forty-eighth in 2007, the forty-ninth in 2011, the fiftieth in 2015, the fifty-first in 2019, the fifty-second in 2023, the fifty-third in 2027, the fifty-fourth in 2031, the fifty-fifth in 2035, the fifty-sixth in 2039, the fifty-seventh in 2043, the fifty-eighth in 2047, the fifty-ninth in 2051, the sixtieth in 2055, the sixty-first in 2059, the sixty-second in 2063, the sixty-third in 2067, the sixty-fourth in 2071, the sixty-fifth in 2075, the sixty-sixth in 2079, the sixty-seventh in 2083, the sixty-eighth in 2087, the sixty-ninth in 2091, the seventieth in 2095, the seventy-first in 2099, the seventy-second in 2103, the seventy-third in 2107, the seventy-fourth in 2111, the seventy-fifth in 2115, the seventy-sixth in 2119, the seventy-seventh in 2123, the seventy-eighth in 2127, the seventy-ninth in 2131, the eightieth in 2135, the eighty-first in 2139, the eighty-second in 2143, the eighty-third in 2147, the eighty-fourth in 2151, the eighty-fifth in 2155, the eighty-sixth in 2159, the eighty-seventh in 2163, the eighty-eighth in 2167, the eighty-ninth in 2171, the ninetieth in 2175, the ninety-first in 2179, the ninety-second in 2183, the ninety-third in 2187, the ninety-fourth in 2191, the ninety-fifth in 2195, the ninety-sixth in 2199, the ninety-seventh in 2203, the ninety-eighth in 2207, the ninety-ninth in 2211, the hundredth in 2215.

The *Sieur Pichon*, Master in Ordinary of Requests, is named by another Ordinance, *Seigneur* General to the Minister of Justice.

The new Minister of Finance, Baron *Louis*, in the view of giving an impulse to the operations of the money market, has given public notice, that the half-pay yearly dividends, not lower than 5 francs of rentes, and becoming due on the 1st of March next, will be paid by anticipation, if required by the holders, on allowing a discount to be made at the rate of 5 per cent.

The Lieutenant of Police, with the exception of Lyons, and the Commissariats-General have been suppressed.

The Duke of Richelieu proposes, it is said, to pass a short time at the Dutchess's of Angoulême, to which he has retired, to make a journey to the South of France, and afterwards into Italy for the re-establishment of his health.

The *Journal des Debats* gives a statement of the receipts of the different Theatres and places of public amusement in Paris during the last year; it exhibits a grand total of 5,000,000 francs, (200,000 *l.* 6s. 8d. English sterling). The tenth of all the receipts is to be applied to the improvement of the admission to public places in Paris is approved.

FRANCE.

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 contains a Royal Ordinance
 public exhibition to take place of the
 industry, at periods to be deter-
 cated, the intervals between which
 four years. The first exhibition
 place in 1819, the second in 1823.
 halls and galleries of the Palace
 composed of five members
 the Secretary of State, for the
 the merits of the articles,
 may appear worthy of prizes
 according to the degree of
 silver or bronze. Such a pe-
 the national fabrics and manu-
 y thinks, be one of the most
 that could be adopted for enco-
 uraging emulation, and accelerat-
 ing industry.
 Michon, Master in Ordinary
 by another Ordinance, Sec-
 retary of Justice.
 Minister of Finance, Baron Lou-
 ving an impulse to the open
 market, has given public notice,
 that the dividends, not lower than
 4 per cent, and becoming due on the
 1st of January, will be paid by anticipation, if
 the holder allows a discount to be
 made of 5 per cent.
 The Police, with the excep-
 tion of commissariats-General have
 been abolished.
 Richelieu proposes, it is said,
 to retire at the Dutchess's
 which he has retired, to manage
 his affairs, and afterwards im-
 prove the health of his health.
 Debats gives a statement
 of the different Theatres and places
 in Paris during the last year;
 the total of 5,000,000 francs, (20
 millions sterling. The tenth of all
 the places in Paris is appropri-

E U R O P E.

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe, containing only about 2,627,574 square miles*, whereas the habitable parts of the World in the other quarters, are estimated at 36,666,806 square miles, is in many respects that which most deserves our attention. There the human mind has made the greatest progress towards its improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greatest number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or instruction.

Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a considerable tendency in giving it the superiority over the rest of the world. First, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and, secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East: the seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries and divisions, as Greece: and we have seen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itself is with regard to the rest of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is worth while to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not speak of Greece as it is at present, under the domination of Turks and unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was distinguished above all the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political constitution; so has Europe in general been remarkable for smaller deviations, at least, from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover, on due examination, that there are a thousand little springs which check the force, and soften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exist any where else. In proportion to the number and force of these checks, the monarchies of Europe, such as Russia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Besides monarchies, in which one man bears the chief sway,

* According to the ingenious Zimmermann, in his "Political Survey of the Present State of Europe," wherein he gives this as the medium of the different writers on this subject.

there are in Europe *aristocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and some states of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are, likewise, mixed governments, which cannot be assigned to any one class. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the most singular instance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments in Europe are composed only of two of the simple forms, such as Poland, several states of Italy, &c. all which shall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Christian religion is established throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by persons of different educations and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, The Greek church; 2d, The Roman Catholic; and 3d, Protestantism: which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the 16th century.

"It may, perhaps, be an object of curiosity, to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly disputed, by the Roman Catholic and Protestant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the surface of the countries, in which the Protestant religion is established, to those in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: the number of Roman Catholics is, according to my calculations, drawn up with as much accuracy as such an intricate matter will allow of, about 90,000,000; the number of Protestants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. I shall observe, in addition to this account of the European religions, that an inconsiderable number of the ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans *".

The languages of Europe are derived from the six following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Slavonic, and Gothic.

"The greatest part of Europe being situated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its most southern provinces being far distant from the torrid zone, the species of organized bodies are much less numerous in Europe than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for instance, upon an equal number of square miles, the number of species of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Asia as 1 to 2½, to that in America as 1 to 2½, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10, and the number of the vegetable species in the other three divisions of the globe, is greatly superior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched our continent with every species of minerals, diamonds, and platina, perhaps, excepted. Gold, the first of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other continents. However, as the European nations excel the rest of mankind, not only in the skill of making the best use of their natural productions, but also in the art of transplanting into their own soil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit, Europe, upon the whole, must be allowed to be one of the richest parts of the globe†".

PUBLIC REVENUE OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES IN EUROPE.

		£. Sterl.
1. Great Britain,	- - -	14,500,000
2. Austria,	- - -	12,400,000 (112 million florins)
3. France,	- - -	18,000,000 (Necker Compte Rendu)

* Zimmermann.

† Ibid.

4. Spain,	£. Sterl.	5,000,000	of Old Spain alone.
5. Russia,		5,800,000	
6. Turkey,		5,000,000	
7. Prussia,		3,600,000	
8. Portugal,		1,800,000	
9. Sicily,		1,400,000	medium.
10. Holland,		4,000,000	
11. Sweden,		1,300,000	
12. Venice,		1,000,000	
13. Denmark,		1,000,000	
14. Electorate of Saxony,		1,100,000	
15. Electorate of Hanover,		900,000	
16. Joint Elect. of the Palat. and Bavaria,		1,100,000	
17. Sardinia,		1,000,000	

"A more exact account will be found in the special tables, the preceding statement in round numbers being intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative state of European finances. It would, however, be very improper to judge of the power of states merely by their finances, because, in some countries, the value of money is much higher than in others: thus, for instance, the whole Russian army costs the state less than two millions of rubles. Russia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others, have paper money *".

LAND FORCES OF THE EUROPEAN STATES IN THE YEAR 1783.

France,	300,000
Austria,	282,000
Russia (450,000 in all) in Europe,	290,000
Prussia,	224,000
Turkey (210,000 in all) but in Europe only	170,000
Spain,	60,000 including militia.
Denmark,	72,000
Great Britain,	58,000 including militia.
Sweden,	50,000
Sardinia,	40,000
Holland,	37,000
Naples and Sicily,	30,000
Electorate of Saxony,	26,000
Portugal,	20,000
Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate,	24,000
Hesse Cassel,	15,000
Hanover,	20,000
Poland,	15,000
Venice,	8,000
Wurtemberg,	6,000
The Ecclesiastical Estate,	5,000
Tuscany,	3,000

"As I have stated here the forces of the principal states only, passing over a considerable part of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of

all the countries in Europe to amount to 2 millions of men; so that supposing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than $\frac{1}{70}$ of the whole population are soldiers. The present military establishment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs somewhat from the above statement. France, Austria, and Prussia, have by far the most formidable armies: as to Russia, the immense extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000, or 130,000 men to act against an enemy; and as to the Turkish forces, they are at present much inferior to any other well-disciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population and the number of soldiers, is not unworthy of observation. There are, in Germany, nearly 500,000 soldiers, consequently $\frac{1}{17}$ of the whole population are engaged in the military profession: in Italy, on the contrary, even supposing the standing armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only $\frac{1}{17}$ of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions *.

N A V A L F O R C E S.

NUMBER OF SHIPS OF THE LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

1. England,	-	-	-	465	
2. France,	-	-	-	266	
3. Spain,	-	-	-	130	
4. Holland,	-	-	-	95	
5. Sweden,	-	-	-	85	
6. Denmark,	-	-	-	60	
7. Turkey,	-	-	-	50	commonly reckoned 60.
8. Russia,	-	-	-	63	
9. Sardinia,	-	-	-	32	
10. Venice,	-	-	-	30	
11. Sicily,	-	-	-	25	
12. Portugal,	-	-	-	24	

Total 1325

"Several of these numbers, taken from the naval lists in the year 1783, are at present reduced; the actual number will be mentioned in the special tables. This gives, however, some idea of the respective naval strength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for instance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years past, and having, for that reason, built but a small number of ships, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increase their naval forces very considerably in case of a war†".

"The greatest part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men strong, bold, active and ingenious; forced by necessity to make the best use they can of the smaller share of vegetable and animal treasures, which their soil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profusion of spontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmosphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their spirit of enterprize, and confine the compass of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is ever likely, to boast of a Newton, a Caesar, or a Frederic‡".

* Zimmermann.

† Ibid.

‡ Ibid.

"Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Apennines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every species of minerals. It is likewise no small convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is intersected by several seas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean."

"The seeming natural disadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perseverance of the inhabitants, given rise to numberless arts and sciences, which have been carried to such a degree of perfection, as insures to Europe a decided superiority over the rest of the globe. Asia, Africa, and America, have immense deserts, such as are no where to be found in Europe; deserts of many thousand square miles, and which are partly owing to natural and insuperable disadvantages of situation, partly to want of industry, which is at once both cause and effect of desolation. It is almost needless to mention how far the sciences of Europe excel those of the other three continents, excepting those parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been transplanted. Europe may also boast of the greatest number of useful inventions and institutions, to preserve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has, at present, about 130 universities, and an almost infinite number of literary societies, or academies of sciences, arts, and languages. In consequence of the great progress of knowledge, we enjoy all the conveniences of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has bestowed greater riches. And such is our superiority of skill in astronomy and navigation, that having conquered, in a great measure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans seems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itself."

"The states of Europe, considered with respect to their intrinsic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three classes: France, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, belong to the first. Secondary powers are those of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third class comprehends Portugal, Naples and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland and Venice. For the last three centuries past, the cabinets of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a constant equilibrium between the different states. France and England endeavoured to preserve the balance of power in the west, Prussia, Austria, and Russia in the east of Europe: Russia has, by its late extraordinary increase of power, gained a great ascendancy in the north, after a successful struggle with the rival power of Sweden."

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 65th degree east longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the east, by Asia; on the south, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America: being 3000 miles long from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Ob in the north east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Cayha or Metapar in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states.

* Zimmermann.

N † Ibid.

† Ibid.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Dist. & Bearing	Diff. of Time	Religions.
					from London.	from London.	
					Miles.	H. M.	
British Empire.	England	380	300	London	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Luth. Calvinists, &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Calvinists, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin			Lut. Cal. & R. Ca.
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
Christianized?	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church
	Poland	700	680	Warsaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	R. C. Luth. & Calv.
Nether-lands.	K. Pr. Dom.	609	350	Berlin	540 E.	0 59 bef.	Luth. and Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	R. C. Luth. & Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	R. Cath.
	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calvinists
France	Flanders	200	200	Brussels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	R. Cath.
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	R. Cath.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	R. Cath.
	Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	R. Cath.
Switzerland	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Coire, &c.	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. and R. Cath.
	Several small states			Piedmont, Monterrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany, &c.			
	Turin			Cafal			
	Italy.			Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.			
Papedom.	Papedom.	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	R. Cath.
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	R. Cath.
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	R. C. and Protestants
	Turkey in Europe.						
Danubian Provinces.	Danubian Provinces.	600	420	Constantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, and Greek Church.
	L. Tartary	380	240	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1260 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

Exclusive of the British isles, Europe contains the following principal islands:

	Islands.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean.	Iceland	Skalholt	Denmark.
	Zealand, Funen, Alsens, Falster, Langeland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm,	— —	Denmark.
Baltic Sea.	Gothland, Aland, Rugen,	— —	Sweden.
	Ofel, Dagho,	— —	Russia.
	Usedom, Wollin,	— —	Prussia.
	Ivica,	Ivica,	Spain.
Mediterranean Sea.	Majorca,	Majorca,	Ditto.
	Minorca,	Port Mahon,	Ditto.
	Corfica,	Bastia,	France.
	Sardinia,	Cagliari,	King of Sardinia.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice.	Sicily,	Palermo,	King of Two Sicilies.
	Lusitana, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	— —	Venice.
Archipelago, and Levant Seas.	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece.	— —	Turkey.

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Russia, for the particulars of which, see RUSSIA.

† Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht 1713, but was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, February 15, 1782 and confirmed to them by the definitive Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris, Sept. 3, 1783.

EAST GREENLAND.

91

D E N M A R K.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish Majesty's dominions, with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

Denmark.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper.	North Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Slefwick,	2,115	70	63	Slefwick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN. { N. Lat. 55—41 E. Long. 12—50
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odenfec.
	Falster and Langland,	220	47	12	{ Niskoping. Narkaw.
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona,	39	14	5	Steg.
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rollcomby.
In the North Seas,	Iceland Island,	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
	Oldenburg,	1,260	62	32	Oldenburg.
	Stormar,	1,900	52	32	Gluckstadt.
Total		163,041			

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimensions of East and West Greenland; because in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we shall proceed to give the latest accounts of them, and from the best authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND,

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have formed within the last 30 years, settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis and the northern lights reflected from the snow, enable them to pursue the chase during the long winter's night that reigns in those gloomy regions, and they take a great number of sea-lions which serve them for food. There is a whale-fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and some British vessels, on its coast. It likewise contains two harbours;

one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 stated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance between the aspect, manners, and dress of those natives, and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Danish and German missionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but they are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is now scarce among them, and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a great copper vessel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping dish. The men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with skins. The men hunt and fish, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to draw the seal up upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the curriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and taylors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says, that in their longest summer days it is so hot that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade, though they have a most improveable fishery upon their coasts; but they employ all the year either in fishing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing seals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the seas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increasing for ages, is one of the greatest curiosities in nature. These fields, or pieces of ice, are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickness; and when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible: the Dutch had 13 ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

There are several kinds of whales in Greenland; some white, and others black. The black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what we call whale-bone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of his tongue are 250

pieces of this whalebone. As to the bones of his body they are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no use. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is usually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows less from thence to the tail.

When the seamen see a whale spout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monster, finding himself wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home; but nothing can smell stronger than these ships do. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3*l.* or 4*l.* a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of East and West Greenland, where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fishery. Of late the English have also been very successful in it.

I C E L A N D.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46000 square miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something risen and flaming in the sea, to the south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distant from the rocks des Oiseaux, which afterwards was found to be a new Island. The fact is authentic, but its dimensions and situation are not well ascertained. The information brought by the last ship from thence, was, that the Island was still increasing, and that great quantities of fire issued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said, that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crosses: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who

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allarm*

was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations: but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is styled *Sísfjammann*, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine: for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for in the year 1707 and 1708 that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well-made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well intentioned people, moderately industrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fishing, and the care of their cattle. On the coasts, the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *Wadmal*. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves nowhere else so happy. An Icelander, therefore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation, when they have passed the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history. The master of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but it is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth, called *wadmal*, and always wear black: those who are in better circumstances wear broad cloth, with silver ornaments, gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad: in some places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with fods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the earth, between three stones; and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally consists of dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the east, south, and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skalholt, (the capital of the island) and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The island is divided into 189 parishes, of which 127 belong to the see of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly salary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Iceland is the same as that formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preserved so pure, that any Icelandic understands their most ancient traditional histories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is said that poetry formerly flourished very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimson, Kormak Ogmundson, Glum Geirson, and Thorlief Jarlaa were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only consists of sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandic bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after they founded four other schools, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. And from the introduction of the Christian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem.

But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

John Arefon, bishop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieson, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidarosense. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappsey in this island, and at which several valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when

fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains Heckla is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. The last eruption of mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded also from it in December 1771, and in September 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongst all the curiosities of Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot spouting water-springs with which this island abounds. The hot springs at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable: but, excepting in the last mentioned country, the water no where becomes so hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high, as the hot spouting water-springs in Iceland. All those water-works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with these. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greatest among all the French water-works, cast up a thin column eighty feet into the air: while some springs in Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: from others, it spouts boiling water with a great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil says, that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Reeyhum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs, the inhabitants who live near them, boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke-warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geyser. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent, precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed, that it spouts to the height of sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height to which it amounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterranean fires. The lower sort of people imagine these

pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to six feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but, in some other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immense masses of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field-ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain-ice, which is often seen fifty and more feet above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many months, nay, it is said, even years, undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. When many such lofty and bulky masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is so much chafed, and pressed with such violence together, that it takes fire: which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice caused so violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that horses and sheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horses were observed to feed upon dead cattle, and the sheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them; and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy these animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows successfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole island, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parsley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or six gardens, which are said to be all that are in the whole island.

TRADE.] The commerce of this island is monopolized by a Danish company. The soil upon the sea-coasts is tolerably good for pasture; and though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen-cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports consist of timber, fishing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, and a little silk; exclusive of some necessaries and superfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SC called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63
No. IV.

deg. W. long. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

N O R W A Y.

NAME, BOUNDARIES,
AND EXTENT.

THE natural signification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the west and North, by the northern ocean; and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country so little known to the rest of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimensions with precision.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its position towards the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea is practicable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longest day consists of about 19 hours, and the shortest of about six. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness, the sky is serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in open air.

The air is so pure in some of the inland parts, that it has been said the inhabitants live so long as to be tired of life, and cause themselves to be transported to a less salubrious air. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have, however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from south to north: to pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the highest mountain, perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a most surprizing landscape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of

those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountains, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolfteen, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards: and serve beside for all domestic uses; particularly the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, ash, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel or alder, juniper, the aspin-tree, the comol or slow-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen) lime or linden tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish Majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, } AND MINERALS. } Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, which being of an incombustible nature, when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth is cleaned by burning, is likewise found here; as are crystals, granates, amethysts, agate, thunder-stones, and eagle-stones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Danish majesty is now working, to great advantage, a silver mine at Konigsberg; other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraas is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt, and coal mines; vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and fresh water lakes in this country are well stocked with fish, and navigable for vessels of considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family-seat of Borge, near Fredericstادت, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss a hundred fathoms in depth; and its site was instantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, } All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to
 FOWLS, AND FISHES. } be found in Norway, with an addition of many more.
 The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the
 rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine,
 the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape par-
 taking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and, in the winter, social;
 and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag; but we shall
 have occasion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are small;
 and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from
 brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious: they are re-
 markable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with
 the rest of their species in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very ex-
 traordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted
 by little dogs; and some prefer bear hams to those of Westphalia. The Norwe-
 gian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hun-
 ger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or
 killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as danger-
 ous: they are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tygers: they dig under ground,
 and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful havoc. The skin of
 the lynx is beautiful and valuable; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes
 are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other
 countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails
 in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a turn-spit dog;
 with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated,
 is so precious, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt: he is
 bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcase larger than himself,
 and unburthens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees:
 when taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little
 creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and few of our readers need to
 be told, that their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is
 little difference between the martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and
 snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We shall have occasion
 to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build
 upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings re-
 sembles a storm; their size is the bigness of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl,
 and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thrushes
 reside in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild
 ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his
 eye resembling that of a pheasant; and he is said to be the largest of all eatable
 birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the sea; the former is
 so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the sea, or
 fish-eagle, is larger than the other; he subsists on aquatic food; and sometimes
 darts on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to free his talons from
 their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the coast of Norway;
 and industry has produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them
 serviceable to the human race: these are the birdmen, or climbers, who are
 amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the birds

and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are sometimes parboiled in vinegar: the flesh is eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern districts, are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in seizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all fish that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe, which need not be here enumerated. Stock-fish innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without salting. Some fishes in these seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-moren is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella-slynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over-board, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned), in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marble skin, and white belly: they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes bring forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. The coasts of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the north pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies: one of these supplies the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torfk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water; these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The most seemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas; and the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea; between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark masters provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being

overfet; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particularities related of this animal would be incredible, were they not attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hog's head; his skin is variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

I should be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, were not its existence proved so strongly, as seems to put it out of all doubt. Its bulk is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes disport themselves, and sea-weeds grow: upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended by such a stench, that the channel where it died was impassable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may safely say, that the existence of this fish being proved, accounts for many of these phænomena of floating islands, and transitory appearances in the sea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of such an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their residence in the Norwegian seas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight spans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much resemblance as an ape has to the human species; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterize its head; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their sexes: though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different descriptions which they have given us of their fishes; but they are so well authenticated, that I make no doubt a new and very surprising theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Those of Norway are only natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskoestrom. The island Moskoe, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hefleggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side, the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe and Ver, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly

into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror, than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible; and see before them the dreadful abyss in which they are about to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they find the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Malestrom is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the gulf of Bothnia: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, }
AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. }

The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but the farmers and common people in Norway are much less oppressed than those in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessities with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few by profession who are hatters, shoe-makers, taylor, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper subject of contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle state prolongs their ages surprisngly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any coverture upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and

danced before his Danish majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain vestiges of their former paganism: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other such questions; frequently kneeling down and asking forgiveness, if ever they had offended the deceased.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what shall be observed in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, most of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000*l.* and till his present majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive, added considerably to his income, by the subsidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We must refer to Denmark likewise for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we are to believe their histories, they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe; which we can easily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a separate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their history, as well as interests, are the same with that of Denmark.

DENMARK* PROPER, OR JUTLAND, EXCLUSIVE OF THE ISLANDS IN THE BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	240†	between	54 and 53 North latitude.
Breadth	114		8 and 11 East longitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac sea, and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and the German sea divides it from Great Britain on the west.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts: the peninsula of Jutland anciently called *Cimbria Chersonesus*, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all these together constitute the kingdom

* See Mallet's Denmark, page 1 to 18. vol. v.

† Meaning where longest and broadest, a method which the author has every where observed; and it seems to be the practice of other writers on the subject. Great allowances must therefore be made in most countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles where broadest, though in sundry other parts it is not 50.

of Denmark, yet not any one of them is separately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the Island of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largest and most fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all sorts of grain and pasturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occasions. A great number of small cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards transported into Holstein, to be fed for the use of Hamburg, Lubec, and Amsterdam. Jutland is every where interspersed with hills, and on the east side has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the west side being less woody, the inhabitants are obliged to use turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the most part a sandy soil, but rather fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which distinguish the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very severe, so that the inhabitants often pass vines of the sea in sledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen up.

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs, and the ancient nobility by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained such a power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that at length they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery; so that they were bought and sold with the lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleswick and Holstein, have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has, indeed, been made somewhat more agreeable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are disposed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark, or in Holstein, happens to be an industrious man, and is situated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageously, as soon as he has performed the toilsome task, and expects to reap the profits of what he has sown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he should perform the same laborious task there, without any other emolument than what he shall think proper to give him. This has been so long the practice in this country, that it necessarily throws the greatest damp upon the efforts of industry, and prevents those improvements in agriculture which would otherwise be introduced: the consequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a state of great poverty. But if the farmers had a security for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at present, and a much greater number of people supported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horses, both for the saddle and carriage, about 5000 are sold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle to 30,000. Besides numbers of black cattle, they have sheep, and hogs, and game: and the sea-coasts are generally well supplied with fish.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration made in 1759, of his Danish majesty's subjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst, in Westphalia; they were said to amount to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the

Icelanders and Greenlanders. The most accurate account of the population, is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee, by which

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Denmark Iceland	283,466	Duchy of Sleswick	243,605
Funen	143,988	Duchy of Holstein	134,665
Norway	723,141	Oldenburgh	62,854
Islands of Ferro	4,754	Delmenhorst	16,217
		Sum Total,	2,017,027

Several of the smaller islands included in the district of Fionia are omitted in this computation, which may contain a few thousands.

However disproportioned this number may seem to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions. But the trade of Denmark hath been so shackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of her ministers, and her merchants are so terrified by the despotism of her government, that this kingdom, which might be rendered rich and flourishing, is at present one of the most indigent and distressed states in Europe; and these circumstances prevent Denmark from being so populous as it otherwise would be, if the administration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to those who engage in agriculture, and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued series of tyranny and oppression their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterprising, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehension. They value themselves extremely upon those titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and shew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dress, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contrast of that nation. They fall much into that indolence and timidity which form a considerable part of the character of the modern Danes; but in other respects are well-meaning people, and acquit themselves properly in their respective employments. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: these dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is entirely to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedral nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are so good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the state, as all the church-lands were wisely appropriated to the government at the Reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The university of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous support of 328 students; these funds are said to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in

general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; and the round tower and Christian's haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus; not to mention that the Danes begin now to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama. It appears, however, that, in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be considered as the principal cause of its being so little cultivated by the Danes.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is situated on the fine island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to the Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its university has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits indeed of only one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said far to exceed that of Venice. The road for the shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. But notwithstanding all these advantages, there is little appearance of industry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, can boast of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or sea service; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually almost as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village, and, at that time, there is scarcely a coach heard to rattle through the streets.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapestry in many of them beautiful, particularly the story of Esther, and an assortment of wild beasts, after the manner of Quidā. A colonnade at each extremity forms the stables, which for their extent and beauty of furniture, are equal to any in Europe. But the finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty lies about 20 English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederiesburg. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like most of the ancient residences of princes, for defence against an enemy. It was built by Christian the IVth, and according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuscan and Doric pillars, and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The Knights' hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen, Matilda, spent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elsinour is another small royal palace, flat roofed,

with 12 windows in front, said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden, is shewn the very spot where, according to tradition, that prince was poisoned.

Jagersburg is a park which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

COMMERCE.] The kingdom of Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber, and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, besides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Danish dominions, are consequently ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns in England. But nothing shews the commercial spirit of the Danes in a more favourable light, than their establishments in the East and West-Indies.

In 1612, Christian IV. of Denmark, established an East-India Company at Copenhagen; and soon after, four ships sailed from thence to the East Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Danish majesty by James I. of England, who married a princess of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. The security which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to settle here; so that the Danish East India Company were soon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a sudden, in 1620 endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice-trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portuguese. The truth is, they soon embroiled themselves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous assistance given them by Mr. Pitt, an English East-India governor, the settlement at Tranquebar must have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the close of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East-India Company found themselves so much in debt, that they published proposals for a new subscription for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to his East-India Company, with vast privileges; and for some time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I shall just mention, that the Danes likewise possess the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John, in the West-Indies, which are free ports and celebrated for smuggling; also the port of Christianburg on the coast of Guinea; and carry on a considerable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the con-

tents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. It contains several good paintings and a fine collection of coins, particularly those of the Consuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the Emperors after the seat of empire was divided into the East and West. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, and both in the form of a hunting-horn: that of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion, that this vessel was made by order of Christian I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. I shall just mention in this place, that several vessels of different metals, and the same form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Danish original. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flensburg and Sleswick, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the ancestors of the bulk of the modern English.

The greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and historians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of those inscriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally much upon the same plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the senate where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose between his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of election of the king, was vested in the states; who were composed, first, of the order of the nobility, and secondly, the order of the citizens and farmers: and after the Christian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats likewise in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other; the crown had also its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue arising out of lands, which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national assemblies were not regularly held to redress their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government,

they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppress and tyrannize over the people. Christian the Second, by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, by uniting himself with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people, instead of exerting themselves to remedy the defects of the constitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were so infatuated as to make the king despotic, in hopes thereby of rendering themselves less subject to the tyranny of the nobility. A series of unsuccessful wars had brought the nation in general into so miserable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppressions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than *slaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nanfon, the speaker of the commons, caught hold of the term *Slavery*; the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services, and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, submitted with the best grace they could to confirm what had been done.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act; by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and by which they invested the king with absolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family. A relic, which perpetuates the memory of the humbled insolence of the nobles, and the hypocrisy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge against them, persuaded the people that his only wishes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, crushing themselves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederick the third had been effected, the king re-united in his person all the rights of the sovereign power; but as he could not exercise all by himself, he was obliged to intrust some part of the executive

power to his subjects; the supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What they call the German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holstein is holden at Gluckstadt; and for the duchy of Sleswick in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the most part decides in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. It is in this council that the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the royal authority; and that any great changes or establishments are proposed, and approved or rejected by the king. It is here likewise, or in the cabinet, that he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extension, or their restriction; and, in fact, it is here that the king expresses his will upon the most important affairs of his kingdom.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is supposed to be present to administer justice in the supreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preside nominally in the sovereign court of justice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always address their discourses in pleading, and the judges the same in giving their opinion. Every year the king is present at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks proper. The decision of these judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal sentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is signed by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark; but notwithstanding this, it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever have justice in this country against one of the nobility, or against one who is favoured by the court, or by the chief minister. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through the favour of the minister, obtains an order from the king to stop all the law-proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws, and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have since been published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can change and alter the laws, and dispense with them as he pleases, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties have been surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark: and the other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK. } After the accession of his present majesty, his court seemed for some time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, observed a most respectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French influence, notwithstanding his connections with Great Britain. The subsidies he received maintained his army; but his family-disputes with Russia concerning Holstein, and the ascendancy which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not suffer him to act that decisive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his situation; especially about the time when the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded. His present Danish majesty's plan seemed, soon after his accession, to be that of forming his dominions into a state of independency, by availing himself of their natural advantages. But sundry events which have since happened, and the general feebleness of his administration, have prevented any further expectations being formed that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at least in any great degree, during the present reign.

With regard to the external interests of Denmark, they are certainly best secured by cultivating a friendship with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and she has been particularly courted by the Mahometan states, on account of her ship-building stores.

The present imperial family of Russia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holstein; but there is, at present, small appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by so enterprising a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repossess themselves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greatest danger that can arise to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic sea (as has happened more than once) is so frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which case the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conquest of the kingdom.

REVENUE.] His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the impositions he lays upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, also raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to observe, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, because they may be abated or raised at the king's will. Customs, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by strangers, arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait of half a mile between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often disputed by the English and Dutch, being nothing more, originally, than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houses on the coast; and the Swedes who command the opposite side of the pass, for some time refused to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The first treaty relative to it, was by the Emperor Charles V. on behalf of his subjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elsinour, a town

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situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic sea, and about 18 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elsinour, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. sterling yearly.

The following is a list of the king's revenues, exclusive of his private estates.

	Rix-dollars at 4s. each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land tax,	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll tax, pound rents, excise, marriages, &c.	950,000
Custom house duties,	154,000
Duties of the Sound,	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from salt-pits,	27,000
Tythes and poll-Tax of Norway,	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Christianfand, and Christiana,	160,000
Other tolls,	552,000
Revenue from mines,	300,000
Revenue from Sleswick, Holstein, Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst,	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and mast from beech,	20,000
Tolls on the Weser,	7,500
Post-office,	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro,	35,000
Farms of Bornholm,	14,800
Oyster Fishery,	22,000
Stamp Paper,	40,000
Sum total,	5,012,300

In English money, 1,002,460

By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to English money £.454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops, which they kept up with vast care. The present military force of Denmark consists of 75,263 men, cavalry and infantry, the greatest part of which consists of a militia who receive no pay, but are registered on the army list, and every Sunday exercised. The regular troops are about 20,000 and mostly foreigners, or most of whom are officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to trust his security in the hands of those he had tricked out of their liberty. This army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs the crown but about 333,000l. sterling annually: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. The present fleet of Denmark is composed of 36 ships of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, if they can send out 25 ships upon the greatest emergency, this is supposed to be the most they can do. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave,

nor serve on board a merchant-man without permission from the admiralty; 5000 of these are kept in constant pay and employed in the dock-yards: their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings a month, but then they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodgings allowed for themselves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] These are two; that of the *Elephant* and that of *Daneburg*: the former was instituted by Christian I. and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured watered ribbon; worn like the George in England: the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is said to be of the highest antiquity, consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surmounted with the motto, *Pietate & iustitia*.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief history of Denmark to a very extraordinary phenomenon; I mean, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the person of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was lost in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other historians of his age, has adopted, and at the same time ennobled by his style, the most ridiculous absurdities of remote antiquity. We can however collect enough from him to conclude that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Irish, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their first histories were written in verse. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia* or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of several nations or septs joining together in expeditions by sea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature, under that prince, throws very little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: that so far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, where they built stone-houses; and that they became masters of England, and some part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

* By Scythia may be understood all those northern countries of Europe and Asia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars, see the Introduction), whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued so late as the 13th century to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the *northern Huns*, the *Mother of Nations*, the *Storehouse of Europe*.

In the eleventh century under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, fell to nothing; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

In 1513, Christian II. king of Denmark, one of the most complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the sister of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full loose to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody massacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic Duke of Holstein was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew, who openly embraced the opinions of Luther, and about the year 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark, by that wise and politic prince Christian III.

Christian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstادت; and in the succeeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburgh, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the land of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic sought to elude those severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under these misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who shewed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the island of Bornholm remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the most imminent dangers, and his attention

to the safety of his subjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was succeeded in 1670, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lundén, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Christian obstinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landskron: and having almost exhausted his dominions in his military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christian, however, did not desist from his military attempts; and at last he became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Christian, after a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein; and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law the duke of Holstein. Charles probably would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great service against the French in the war of Queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon the Swedish Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbuck, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederic revenged himself, by seizing great part of the ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war against Denmark with a most imbibited spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshol, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI. made no other use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects; whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction*, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the House of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue. 1779

of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a dispute with his Britannic majesty about the little lordship of Steinhors, which had been mortgaged to the latter by the duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of 70,000*l.* sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he seized some Dutch ships for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken: but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing all Scandinavia subject to one family. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766. His son, Christian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. But this alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, yet had in the event a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, who has a son named Frederic, and whom she is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. She possesses a great degree of dissimulation, and when the princess Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, she received her with all the appearance of friendship and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the same time telling her, that she would take every opportunity, as a mother, to assist her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, she became the depositary of all the young queen's secrets, whilst at the same time it is said, she placed people about the king, to keep him constantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which she knew he was naturally too much inclined: and at length it was so ordered, that a mistress was thrown in the king's way, whom he was persuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager used frequently to visit the young queen Matilda; and, under the mask of friendship and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and excesses which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often persuaded her not to live with him. But as soon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her councils, as it was presumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to

discover the designs of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen also now assumed to herself the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with, in the management of public affairs. This stung the old queen to the quick; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with schemes of revenge. But her views of this kind at first appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, because the king had displaced several of her friends who were about the court, who had been increasing the national debt in times of the most profound peace, and who were rioting on the spoils of the public. However, she at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was observed that Brandt and Struensee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a minister, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were supported by her. This opened a new scene of intrigue at Copenhagen: all the discarded ministers paid their court to the queen-dowager, and she became the head and patroness of the party. Old count Moltke, an artful displaced statesman, and others, who were well versed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had unexperienced young persons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not sufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very soon predicted their ruin. Struensee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the administration of the public affairs at once, which should have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies, among those whose interest it was that things should continue upon the same footing that they had been for some time before. After this queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter, but as soon as the queen-dowager saw her, she immediately turned her back, and with a malicious smile, declared that the child had all the features of Struensee: on which her friends published it among the people, that the queen must have had an intrigue with Struensee; which was corroborated by the queen's often speaking with this minister in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated against the reigning queen, and another report was also industriously spread, that the governing party had formed a design to supersede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her son; and that Struensee was to be her prime-minister. Whatever Struensee did to reform the abuses of the late ministry, was represented to the people as so many attacks upon, and attempts to destroy, the government of the kingdom. By such means the people began to be greatly incensed against this minister: and as he also wanted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were some of the creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe, that it was the design of Struensee to change the whole system of government. It must be admitted, that this minister seems in many respects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his passions: his principles also appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the proper measures to be taken for effectuating their designs: and it was at length resolved, to surprize the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to sign an order, which was to be prepared in readiness, for committing the persons before mentioned to separate prisons, to accuse them of high-treason in general, and in particular of a design to poison, or dethrone the king; and if that could not be properly supported, by torture or otherwise, to procure witnesses to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struensee. This

was an undertaking of so hazardous a nature, that the wary count Moltke, and most of the queen-dowager's friends who had anything to lose drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excusing themselves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at last procured a sufficient number of active instruments for the execution of her designs. On the 16th of January, 1772, a masked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counsellor Struensee brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as usual one country dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struensee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the same morning, prince Frederic, who had also been at the ball, got up and dressed himself, and went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichstedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majesty's valet-de-chambre to awaken him, and in the midst of the surprise and alarm, that this unexpected intrusion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struensees were at that instant busy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to sign: and that the only means he could use to prevent so imminent a danger, was to sign those orders without loss of time, which they had brought with them, for arresting the queen and her accomplices. It is said, that the king was not easily prevailed upon to sign these orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and hesitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were dispatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arrested her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which she was conveyed to the castle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princess, attended by lady Mostyn, and escorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struensee and Brandt were also seized in their beds, and imprisoned in the citadel. Struensee's brother, some of his adherents and most of the members of the late administration, were seized the same night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this seemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her son, supported and assisted by those who had the principal share in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whose person and name it was necessary occasionally to make use of. All the officers who had a hand in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almost total change took place in all the departments of administration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic presided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the prisoners, and to commence a process against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison; they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off; but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards set at liberty. Struensee at first had absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen; but this he afterwards confessed; and though he is said by some to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this respect were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. Beside, no measures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this respect. But in May, his Britannic majesty sent a small squadron of ships to convoy that princess

to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future residence. She died there, of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May 1775, aged 23 years 10 months.

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the Empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs; but on the 16th April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by the Prince Royal*.

* Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princess Carolina Matilda of England; and has issue, Frederic prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 28. 1768; Louisa Augusta princess royal, born July 7. 1771.

HIS DANISH MAJESTY'S GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empress of Russia (termed Ducal Holstein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck; but on the 16th of November, 1773, the Ducal Holstein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial sovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holstein Gottorp is joint sovereign of great part of it now, with the Danish monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holstein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Danish Holstein is Gluckstadt, a well built town and fortress, but in a marshy situation on the right of the Elbe, and has some foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built professedly in that situation by the kings of Denmark, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East India Company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flock to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical sense, in Holstein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanseatic city, lying on the verge of the part of Holstein called Stormar. It has the sovereignty of a small district round of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark still lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be considered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are said to amount to 180,000; and it is furnished with a vast variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it still carries on a great trade. The Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, and still a rich and populous place, is also in this duchy, and governed by

its own magistrates. It has 20 parish churches besides a large cathedral. Lutheranism is the established religion of the whole dutchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhurst, about 2000 square miles; they lie on the south side of the Weser; their capitals have the same name; the first has the remains of a fortification, and the last is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty. The country abounds with marshes and heaths, but its horses are the best in Germany.

L A P L A N D.

THE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I should treat of it under a distinct head, and in the same method that I observe in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30' N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts in the east, to the Muscovites or Russians. It would be little better than wasting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the supposed dimensions of each. That belonging to the Swedes, may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts say, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies towards the east, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Those parts, notwithstanding the rudeness of the country, are divided into smaller districts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unless the Swedish part, which is subject to a Prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what has been said in the Introduction, may easily conceive that in Lapland, for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and during winter, it never rises: but the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinue their work through darkness.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unusual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in some thermometers, spirits of wine are congealed into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of snow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place, and then the frost that succeeds, presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein deer in a sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataracts, which dash from the mountains, often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader must form in his mind a vast mass of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however, in some interstices, separated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form delightful ha-

bitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terrestrial Paradise: even roses and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; though this is but a short gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains cover great part of the flat country, so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful crystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisngly polished by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewise been sometimes found in the rivers, but never in the seas.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We must refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature resembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is so much esteemed, that it is frequently given as presents to royal and distinguished personages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the most remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*; which nature seems to have provided to solace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the creation, resembles the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All describers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noise that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the same manner that the claw of the *Parmigan* is with feathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the same climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped hath therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant however the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the snapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon moss: they have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow that covers it with their feet. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with

the country during the summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is a well tasted food, whether fresh or dried: their skin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumstance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of those carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination. But after all these abatements, the natives would have difficulty to subsist without their rein-deer, which serve them for so many purposes.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Rounes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanack. These hieroglyphics are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law. Missionaries, from the christianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Christian religion; but they cannot be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most uninstructed pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe, that they are skilled in magic and divination. For this purpose their magicians, who are a peculiar set of men, make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds, and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progress the forcerer prognosticates. These frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of these impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is also a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the forcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over hu-

man actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of some lake, from whence they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains, and their environs, possessing herds of rein-deer more or less numerous, which they use according to the season, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison to the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate besides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into classes; so that they instantly perceive whether any one is strayed, though they cannot count to so great a number as that to which their stock often amounts. Those who possess but a small stock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests, live by fishing and hunting, and chuse their situation by its convenience for either. The greatest part of them, however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow. Besides looking after their rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harness for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utensils, which are sometimes neatly carved, and sometimes ornamented with bones, brass, or horn. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and in tanning hides: but it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is said, the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six in height. They cover them according to the season, and the means of the possessor; some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. They are scarcely able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, they place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their household-furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin, and even silver basons: to these may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon a post, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of a fathom or six foot from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provisions; and though they are never shut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions; the chase and the fishery supply the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and pudding which they make of their blood, by putting it either alone, or mixed with wild berries, into the sto-

much of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cool it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all sorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, and without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk: they make also broths and fish-soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer: and, as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dress of the Laplanders they use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed, and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this, they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, whose skirts reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat hath a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head; and, as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman, who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaisant, chaste, often well-made, and extremely nervous; which is also observable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a spark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noise, or the sudden sight of an unexpected object, though it is in its own nature not in the least alarming: in short, at the most trifling things imaginable. During those paroxysms of terror, they deal about blows with the first thing that presents itself; and, on coming to themselves, are utterly ignorant of all that has passed.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her fa-

ther with brandy; when with some difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one he offers her a beaver's tongue, or some other eatable: which she rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from her father by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses made of rein-deer milk. They receive for these, rixdollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, tobacco, and other necessaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel skins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the security of their property, few disputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable aversion to war; and, so far as we know, are never employed in any army.

S W E D E N.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	800	between	{ 56 and 69 North latitude.
Breadth	500		{ 10 and 30 East longitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the south; by the impassable mountains of Norway, on the west; by Danish or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muscovy, on the east. It is divided into seven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (These two last provinces belong now, however, to the Russians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by posterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swedish Lapland: and 7. The Swedish islands. Great abatements must be made for the lakes, and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are so extensive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimensions given us of this kingdom.

S W E D E N.

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Sweden.	Square Miles.	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
Sweden Proper	47,900	228,715	342	194	STOCKHOLM, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Long. 19—15. Calmar. Lunden.
Gothland	25,975	76,835	253	160	Torne. Uma. Abo. Cajenburg. Wisby. Barkholm.
Schonen	2,900		77	56	
Lapland and W. Bothnia	76,000		420	340	
Swedish Finland, and East Bothnia	73,000		395	225	
Gothland I.	1000	150,560	80	23	Stralfund. Bergen.
Oeland I.	560		84	9	
Upper Saxony	960	1,320	47	24	
Pomerania, P. Rugen I.	360		24	21	

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the subdivisions:

Uplandia,	Geftricia,	Angermania,
Sudermania,	Helsingia,	Jemptia.
Westmania,	Dalicarla,	
Nericia,	Medelpedia,	

Of Gothland, the following are the subdivisions:

East Gothland,	Wermeland,	Bleking,
West Gothland,	Dalia,	Halland.
Smaland,	Schonen,	

Of Swedish Lapland, the following are the subdivisions:

Thorne Lapmark,	Lula Lapmark,	Uma Lapmark,
Kimi Lapmark,	Pithia Lapmark,	

The principal places in Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the subdivisions:

East Bothnia,	Savoloxia,	Travaftia,
Cajania,	Nyland,	Finland Proper.

The Swedish isles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is pretty similar to those of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. } The same may be said with regard to this article.
SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. } Summer bursts from winter; and vegetation is more speedy than in southern climates; for the sun is here so hot, as sometimes to set forests on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is so intense, that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are sometimes mortified; and in such cases, the best remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected

part with snow. The Swedes, since the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in some places with great success. The soil is much the same with that of Denmark, and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some vallies surprisngly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry sufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say, that they raise almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in case of deficiency, the people are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In summer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce strawberries, raspberries, currants, and other small fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry seasons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other fossils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, arises from her mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The last mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and smelting houses. A kind of a gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden, but so inconsiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9. 4d. sterling. The first gallery of one silver mine is 100 fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners descend about forty fathoms to the lowest vein. This mine is said to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vast taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other resources for the exigencies of state. These subterraneous mansions are astonishingly spacious, and at the same time commodious for their inhabitants, so that they seem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for some years, the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000l. sterling. Dr. Busching thinks that they constituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It must, however, be observed, that the extortions of the Swedish government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and some other causes, have greatly diminished this manufacture in Sweden; so that the Swedes will be obliged to apply themselves to other branches of trade and improvements, especially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } A few leagues from Gottenburg there is a
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } hideous precipice, down which a dreadful ca-
 taract of water rushes with such impetuosity, from the height into so deep a bed of water, that large masts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, disappear, some for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. A remarkable slimy lake, which sines things put into it, has been found in the southern part of Gothland: and several parts of Sweden contain a stone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords sulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic, done by a bishop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which

are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a strait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year; nor are they so salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] These differ little from those already described in Norway and Denmark, to which I must refer; only the Swedish horses are known to be more serviceable in war than the German. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in such quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals, taken in the gulf of Finland, is a considerable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy, plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could, however, form no idea that the modern Swedes are the descendants of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of the senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress, exercises, and diversions of the common people, are almost the same with those of Denmark: the better sort are infatuated with French modes and fashions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to spare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are surprisngly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have such an aversion to popery, that castration is the fate of every Roman catholic priest discovered in their country. The archbishop of Upsal has a revenue of about 400l. a year; and has under him 13 suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. No clergyman has the least direction in the affairs of state; but their morals, and the sanctity of their lives, endear them so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious oeconomy. A conversion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot pass without the king's permission, is punished by imprisonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. The Swedish nobility and

gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite literature than those of many other more flourishing states. They have of late exhibited some noble specimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witness their sending, at the expence of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher Hasselquist, into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swedish majesty purchased, at no inconsiderable expence for that country, all Hasselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman, and historian Puffendorf, was a native of Sweden; and so was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philosophy, in some branches at least, particularly botany, to the highest pitch. The passion of the famous queen Christina for literature, is well known to the public; and she may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midst of the late distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a considerable height in that kingdom; and the character given by some writers, that the Swedes are a dull, heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great measure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upsal, instituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by several successive monarchs, particularly by the great Gustavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Christina. There are near 1500 students in this university; but for the most part they are extremely indigent, and lodge five or six together, in very poor hovels. The professors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; the largest of whose salaries does not exceed 130*l.* or 140*l.* per annum, and they are in general not half that sum. There is another university at Abo, in Finland, but not so well endowed, nor so flourishing: and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every diocese is provided with a free-school, in which boys are qualified for the university†.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. } The Swedish commonalty subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic, are bulky and useful commodities of malts, beams, deal-boards, and other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, potash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. Book-selling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, alum, and brimstone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flattening-mills; mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those

† An academy of arts and sciences was some years since established at Stockholm, and is now in a flourishing condition. They have published several volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the sea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine districts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports, most part of which arrive, or are sent off in Swedish ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the English. These promising appearances were, however, blasted, by the madness and jealousies of the Swedish government.

Stockholm is a staple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it stands about 760 miles north-east from London, upon six contiguous islands, and built upon piles. The castle, though commodious and covered with copper, has neither strength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of house-keepers, who pay taxes, are 60,000. The harbour is spacious and convenient, though difficult of access, and this city is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling), that are common to other great European cities.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became despotic. He was succeeded by his sister Ulrica; who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the states appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, ecclesiastical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king only with the approbation of the senate. The estates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers and peasants. The representatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, those of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peasants to 250. Each order sat in its own house, and had its own speaker; and each chose a secret committee for the dispatch of business. The states were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain; because, as it has been observed, the king's prerogative was far more bounded.

When the states were not sitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the senate, which were no other than a committee of the states, but chosen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper house, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; these chose three persons, who were to be presented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peasants had no vote in electing a senator. Almost all the executive power was lodged in the senate, which consisted of 14 members, besides the chief governors of the provinces, the president of the chancery, and the grand marshal. Those senators, during the recess of the states, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a casting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each senator was accountable for his conduct to the states. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was not so great as that of the Stadtholder. The

senate had even a power of imposing upon the king a sub-committee of their number who were to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endless to recount the numerous subordinate courts, boards, commissions, and tribunals, which the jealousy of the Swedes had introduced into the administration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is sufficient to say, that though nothing could be more plausible, yet nothing was less practicable than the whole plan of their distributive powers. Their officers and ministers, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they must pass.

But in August 1772, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the present king, by force, and in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found at the close of our review of the history of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, instead of having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king is to assemble and separate the states whenever he pleases; he is to have the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though by this new system the king does not openly claim a power of imposing taxes on all occasions, yet such as already subsist are to be perpetual; and in case of invasion, or pressing necessity, the king may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled. But of this necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depends wholly upon his will and pleasure. And when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to discern, that a government thus constituted, can be little removed from one of the most despotic kind. However, the Swedish nation is still amused with some slight appearances of a legal and limited government. For in the new system, which consists of fifty-seven articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of seventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the state, whenever the king shall demand it. In that case, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of the senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are some other apparent restraints of the regal power in the new system of government, but they are in reality very inconsiderable. It is said, indeed, that the king cannot establish any new law, nor abolish any old one, without the knowledge and consent of the states. But the king of Sweden, according to the present constitution, is invested with so much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any person will venture to make an opposition to whatever he shall propose.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is first chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after beheading, instead of being quartered, are burned. No capital punishment is inflicted without the sentence being confirmed by the king. Every prisoner is at liberty to petition the king, within

a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjust condemnation, and in such a case demands a revival of the sentence; or else prays for pardon, or a mitigation of punishment. Malefactors are never put to death except for very atrocious crimes, such as murder, housebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in some countries are considered as capital, are chiefly punished by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, imprisonment and hard labour, either for life, or for a stated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confession till the reign of the present king; but, in 1773, his Swedish majesty abolished this cruel and absurd practice.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Gustavus Vasa, a treaty of alliance first took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards, Sweden also entered into a subsidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus. In consequence of these treaties, France by degrees acquired an ascendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the interests of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a subsidy from France for above 100 years past, and has much suffered by it. During the reign of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was sacrificed to the interest of France; and during the last war with the king of Prussia, for the sake of a small subsidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000*l.* which has since been considerably augmented, so that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wisest men have perceived the mischievous tendency of their connection with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in consequence of their subsidies and intrigues, has occasioned considerable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a most powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French measures. The persons who composed it went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object they held out to the nation was, the recovery of some of the dominions yielded to Russia; and consequently the system they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themselves with France. The party directly opposed to them was headed by count Horn, and those who had contributed to establish the new form of government, which was settled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domestic welfare of the nation. The system, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a close correspondence with Russia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. These were styled the *Caps*. There was besides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, composed of persons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themselves. These parties long continued, but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real interest of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the English court to lessen or destroy the French influence in Sweden, and for some time they were successful: but the Hat party again acquired the ascendancy. These parties, however, are now abolished, in consequence of the present king of Sweden having made such a total change in the constitution of government. And as, whatever reason his subjects may have to complain of him, on account of the power he has assumed, he is certainly a prince of very considerable penetration and abilities, it is probable, that when his own interests and those of his subjects do not interfere, he will attend to the advantage of the nation. His sagacity, therefore, there is reason to conclude, will lead him to promote the external political interests of Sweden; and he may, perhaps, be contented, under the guarantee of Great Britain, to observe a strict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Russia. The interest of

Sweden even reaches as far as Turkey; for that empire found its account in balancing the power of Russia by that of Charles XII.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, since the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Russians since, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verdun, and other places that kingdom was stripped of, contained about 78,000 square miles. Her gold and silver specie in the late reign, arose chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown-lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are said to have produced a million sterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; some of those pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate sum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued each at 5s. 2d. but these are very scarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little specie in circulation; large pieces of copper stamped, and small bank notes, being almost their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum, is charged with a foot-soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or else a little wooden-house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said, that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, but before the loss of Livonia to 60,000; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line; but of late years their ships, together with their docks, have been suffered greatly to run to decay.

ROYAL STYLE.] The king's style is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] These are, the order of the *North Star*, consisting of 24 members; the order of *Vasa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the last created in 1772.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of subduing the Roman empire, and all the southern nations of Europe. I shall not here follow the wild romances of Swedish historians through the early ages, from Magog the great grand-son of Noah. It is sufficient to say, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor shall I dispute her being the paramount state of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway) and that she borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Christianity by Ansgarius bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history.

The history of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and even doubtful; but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an

appearance more regular, and affords wherewith to recompense the attention of those who chuse to make it an object of their studies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly ascertained, or uniformly administered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded. The great lords possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which consisted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itself in a very rude and imperfect state. The clergy, particularly those of a dignified rank, from the great respect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immense influence in all public affairs, and obtained possessions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the state, formed a council called the Senate, which was master of all public deliberations. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to the national prosperity. The Swedes perished in the dissensions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between those and their sovereign; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and, what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions in Sweden, and to subject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhausted by its domestic broils. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted.

Magnus Ladulus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; and to succeed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who had ever sat on the Swedish throne; by his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power; and whilst, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of his nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great disorder and confusion, and the government was for a long time in the most unsettled state.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this last in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North, by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions en-

sued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design no less barbarous, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility. This horrid design was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden, but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was laid on his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address he eluded all their attempts, and escaped, under the disguise of a peasant, to the mountains of Dalicaria. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his discovery he wrought in the brass-mines, how he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence, and in fine, surmounting a thousand obstacles, engaged the savage, but warlike inhabitants of Dalicaria, to undertake his cause, to oppose, and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person. He was created therefore first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the universal consent, and with the shouts of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles, had rid him of those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were supported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible: arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Gustavus died in 1559; while his eldest son Eric, was preparing to embark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the Catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even reconciled himself to the pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual. John's son Sigisfund, was, however, chosen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to restore the Roman Catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and being a strenuous protestant, his nephew, Sigismund, endeavoured to drive him from the administratorship, but without effect; till at last he and his family were excluded from the succession to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was himself a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Russia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his eighteenth year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages; all which he surmounted. He narrowly missed being master of Russia; but the Russians were so tenacious of their independency, that his scheme was baffled. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a sum of money besides.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen a vast deal of military service, and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than historians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the house of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom Gustavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the protestant cause placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the most rapid and wonderful successes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is sufficient to say, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence in 1630, he count Tilly the Austrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a battle; which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals, trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe, that he had in his eye somewhat more than the relief of the protestants, and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenstiern, was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, 1648, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new system.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a

noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men; to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a value for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king John Casimir, into Siletia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark, has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Dronheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland against him. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being beaten in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of the Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verdun, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister: but made a very bad use of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enslaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power despotic, and his army formidable. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen, but he saved himself by flight; and Charles became so considerable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryfwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was set aside for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became thereby his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head against them all; and besieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but such was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled, if they did

not excel, those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus king of Poland: but stained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1703, and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, were such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it however convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-shot, as it is generally said, at the siege of Frederichshall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a shot from the walls of Frederichshall, but that a pistol from some nearer hand, from one of those about him, gave the decisive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is said to be very prevalent among the best informed persons in Sweden. And it appears, that the Swedes were tired of a prince, under whom they had lost their richest provinces, their bravest troops, and their national riches; and who yet untamed by adversity, pursued an unsuccessful and pernicious war, nor would ever have listened to the voice of peace, or consulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was succeeded, as hath been already mentioned, by his sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have also seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given some account of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband, when they entered upon the exercise of government. Their first care was to make a peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their further losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Hats*, which hath been already spoken of: which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince, and successor to the crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all the effects of his resentment, and to forget the indignity done to his son. The prince's successor, Adolphus Frederic, mar-

ried the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia; and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and much harrassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus the Third, the present reigning prince. He possesses abilities greatly superior to those of his father, and has much more ambition. He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden; his understanding had been much cultivated, he hath an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of the late king, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation-oath for the present king. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed and swore to observe twenty articles, relative to his future administration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promises before God to support the government of the kingdom as then established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberties and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was established in the year 1720, and conformably to the present act of capitulation. In consequence of the declaration of the states, the king shall regard any person, who shall openly or clandestinely endeavour to introduce absolute sovereignty, as an enemy of the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, and every person must take an oath respecting this matter, before he can take possession of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the senate, the king promises to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which are to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much less against, their advice. To the end that the council of state may be so much the more convinced of the inviolable designs of his majesty, and of his sincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity, in case that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And lastly, the king threatens any person with his highest displeasure, who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a greater degree of power and splendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majesty desires only to gain the affection of his faithful subjects, and to be their powerful defender against any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. At his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them;

he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct made him considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot, that motives of ambition might have some share in forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the purest benevolence. At the same time that he laboured to render himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to persuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was sincerely and inviolably attached to the constitution of his country, that he was perfectly satisfied with the share of power the constitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he considered it as his greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He seemed intent only on banishing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation; and that he would ever pay the most implicit obedience to whatever the diet should enact. These professions lulled the many into a fatal security, though they created suspicions among a few of greater penetration, who thought his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In the mean time, there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and no methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. Emissaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers* into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council chamber, in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments in the palace, and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day to the people in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness; overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, esteeming it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen

* The fidelity which was manifested by a private soldier, on this occasion, deserves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being desirous of visiting the arsenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refused. "Do you know who you are speaking to?" said the king. "Yes," replied the soldier, "but I likewise know my duty."—*Vid.* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden published by Charles Francis Sheridan Esq. who was secretary to the British envoy in Sweden, at the time of the revolution; and is now secretary at war in Ireland.

"among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square, where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's orders, and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of psalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that the intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at some periods, have discovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have seemed fitted only for slavery; and when they were labouring to render themselves free, they have wanted that sound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for securing their future freedom. The most capital defect of the Swedish constitution was the total want of all balance of its parts: and the division of the Swedish nation into three distinct classes of nobles, burghers, and peasants, whose interests were perpetually clashing, has been a circumstance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much restrained; but no sufficient regulations were adopted for securing the personal freedom of the subject. These defects in the Swedish constitution paved the way for the late revolution: but it is notwithstanding a just subject of surprise, that a bold and hardy people, who had so cautiously limited the power of their prince, should at once, without a struggle, suffer him to proceed to so great an extension of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third hath thus assumed, he has hitherto, since the revolution, exercised with some degree of moderation.

Gustavus, of Holstein-Gottorp, king of Sweden, was born in 1746, and succeeded his father in 1771. He was married, in 1766, to Sophia Magdalene, the princess-royal of Denmark, by whom he has issue a prince, Gustavus Adolphus, born Nov. 1, 1778. His brothers and sister are, 1. Charles, born in 1748. 2. Frederick Adolphus, born in 1750. 3. Sophia Albertina, born in 1753.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1500	between	{ 23 and 65 East longitude.
Breadth	1100		{ 47 and 40 North latitude.

DIVISIONS AND NAME. } ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it consists of fifteen (Mr. Voltaire says sixteen) provinces, or governments; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland; which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Chersonesus, a peninsula in the Euxine sea subject to the Turks formerly, but added, in the year 1783, to the Russian empire, with the isle of Tama, and part of Cuban*; also the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empress of Russia has now the entire disposal.

The following table will give some idea of the Russian empire, properly so called, or Russia in Europe, with its acquisitions from Sweden in the present century. And also of the Russian empire in its most extensive sense, for we must also include all the acquisitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Asia, stretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the west, to Kamtschatka and the Eastern Ocean; and on the north, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-seventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian Seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

The country now comprized under the name of Russia or the Russias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander; or both put together, as may be seen by turning to the table, page 53, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

	Russian Empire in Europe.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Greek Church	Rus. or Musc.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.
	Belgorod,	72,000	375	285	Waronetz.
	Don Cossacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.
	Uk. Cossacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.
	Rus. Finland,	41,310	320	180	Wyburg.
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH { N. Lat. 60.
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Csim Tar.	8,200	160	115	Kassa. { E. Long. 30-25
	Russian Empire in Asia.				
Christians and Idolaters	Muscovy, Tartary, and Siberia,	2,200,000	3150	1500	Tobolsky
	Kalmuck Tartary,	850,000	2100	750	Astrachan.
	Total —	4,161,685			

* The Russians are supposed to have gained above a million of subjects by this cession.

Russia has also been subdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.	{	1. Lapland,	Eastern Provinces.	{	17. Bulgar,
		2. Samoida,			18. Kasan,
		3. Bellamorenkey,			19. Tschéremiffi,
		4. Meseen,			20. Little Novogorod,
		5. Dwina,			21. Don Cossacs.
		6. Syrianes,	Western Provinces.	{	22. Great Novogorod,
		7. Permia,			23. Russia Finland,
		8. Rubeninski,			24. Kexholm,
		9. Belaebeda.			25. Kaleria,
Middle Provinces.	{	10. Rezan, or Pereflaf,	Southern Provinces.	{	26. Ingria.
		11. Belozero,			27. Livonia,
		12. Wologda,			28. Smolenko,
		13. Jeraflaf,			29. Zernizof,
		14. Tweer,			30. Seefsk,
		15. Moscow,			31. Ukraine, or country of the
		16. Belgorod.			Old Cossacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the British factory at Petersburg, who has lately published an account of Russia, has enumerated the following nations as comprehended in this great empire :

The Mongouls,	The Tschouwafches,	The Kurilians,
The Kalmucs,	The Mordvines,	The Kistim and Toulibert
The Tartars,	The Votiaks,	Tartars,
The Samoiedes,	The Terptyaireis,	The Vergho Tomskoi Tar-
The Ostiaks,	The Tartars of Kasan and	tars,
The Burattians,	Orenburg,	The Sayan Tartars,
The Jakutans,	The Tartars of Tobolsk,	The Touralizes,
The Tungusians,	The Tartars of Tomsk,	The Bougharians,
The Voguls,	The Nogayan Tartars,	The Baschkirians,
The Laplanders,	The Tartars of the Ob,	The Mestscheraiks,
The Finns,	The Tschoulym Tartars,	The Barabazines,
The Lettonians,	The Katschintz Tartars,	The Kirkgusians,
The Estonians,	The Teleutes,	The Belirians,
The Lieffs,	The Abinzes,	The Yakoutes,
The Ingrians,	The Biryouffes,	The Kamtschadales,
The Tschéremiffes,		

and various others; but some of which must be considered rather as distinct tribes, than as distinct nations.

As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi, and the river Mosca, upon which the ancient capital Moscow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. } In the southern parts of Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a vast diversity of soil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be seen and felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate, however, in Russia properly so called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Peterburgh, by Farenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below freezing point: though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is almost difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great: but it may help to give some notion of it to inform the reader, that when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice. But, even in that state, the beard is found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to supply their place. All the parts of the face, which are exposed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it first by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarked, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this substance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy or spirits of wine. But notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they serve at the same time for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly so warm, that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: in the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable, that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate is, the preserving provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets

in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is not a little curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is by immersing them in cold water: for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction: but when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickness of vegetation in Russia is pretty much the same as has been described in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The snow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miserably fed; the soil produces a vast number of mushrooms for their subsistence; and in some places, besides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, honey, rice and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewise extract a spirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Russia was populous in former days, is not to be disputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture: and supplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of saw-dust and a preparation of fish-bones. Peter the Great, and his successors, down to the present Empress, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the soil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in some provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Russia, as it is in the southern countries of Europe. The vast communication, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, serve to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Russia as in Scandinavia: and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in some places, most of which produce the lead stone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich silver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, } Russia is in general a flat, level country,
AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } except toward the north, where lie the Zimno-
poias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now
called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part
of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount
Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending to the sea of Oral. And here
we may observe, that from Petersburg to Pekin, one shall hardly meet with a
mountain on the road through Independent Tartary, and from Petersburg to the
north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, we scarcely
can perceive the smallest hill.

The most considerable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running east and south, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian sea: it is not only reckoned the largest, but one of the most fertile rivers of Europe: it produces all kinds of fish; and fertilizes all the lands on each side with the richest trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long course there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantity of isles, as it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: and all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again, so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian sea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia; and in its course towards the east, comes so near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Borysthènes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourne, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two Dwina, one of which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its source near Ustiaga, and dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

As to forests, they abound in this extensive country; and the northern and north-eastern provinces are in a manner desert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Christians rather than Pagans.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, } These do not differ greatly from those de-
FISHES, AND INSECTS. } scribed in the Scandinavian provinces, to
which we must refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can master; and is said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already described, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes, and ermine, are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are but small; as are their cows and sheep.

We know of few or no birds in Russia, that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes, only the Russians are better provided than their neighbours with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga: the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga, the Russians make the famous caviar, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-stone, which is concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior part of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. The instant it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens

in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg, shape sometimes oval and sometimes flattened, and commonly sells for a ruble. This stone is supposed by professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish: it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vast empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at most, seven millions. It is surprising that such a mistake should have continued so long, when we consider the immense armies brought into the field by the sovereigns of Russia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Asia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the first author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this respect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a list, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to six millions six hundred and forty-six thousand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to be taxed, including women and girls, we shall find near twenty millions of souls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thousand soldiers, and two hundred thousand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewise exempted from the poll-tax; as also (says Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Cossacs, the Kalmuks, and other Tartars; the Samoiedes, the Laplanders, the Ostiaks, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this list. The new register in 1764 contains 8,500,000 subject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer resident some time in Russia gives the following estimate:

Lower class of people paying capitation tax,	- - -	18,000,000
Conquered provinces,	- - -	1,200,000
Noble families,	- - -	60,000
Clergy,	- - -	100,000
Military,	- - -	360,000
Civil,	- - -	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Cossacs, &c.	- - -	350,000
		<hr/>
		20,100,000.

To these must now be added near a million more by the acquisitions of the Crimea, and part of Cuban Tartary. *Part of the Sea of Caspian, &c.*

As her imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries from whence the prodigious swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is the strongest reason to believe, that her dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present; twenty-four millions, are but a thin population for the immense tract of country she possesses. As the like decrease of inhabitants is observable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reason in natural causes, which we cannot discuss here. Perhaps the introduction of the small-pox and the venereal disease may have assisted in the depopulation;

+ 2. Black Sea. P. of Palus Mazotis

and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of strong and spirituous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for a long time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but in the late war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly distinguished themselves. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; they endure extreme hardships with great patience; and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyards, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves upon the streets, while the court of Moscow was by far the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements, in learning and the arts, which he made, shall be mentioned elsewhere. The Russians, before his days, had hardly a ship upon their coasts. They had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, a French or English gentleman may make a shift to live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the present empress, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, to be observed, that notwithstanding the severity of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among all ranks; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. This, however, was only the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interests herself in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now dis-

used. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even among the lowest ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company returns to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his destination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Russians are remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds, nay thousands, at a time. The single and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies*, as well as men of quality. Both

* A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in *Monf. L'Abbé Chappe D'Auteroche's* journey into Siberia. *Mud. Lapouchin* was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, then engaged in a conspiracy. This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in the conspiracy, was condemned, by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indifferency, but not even the shadow of guilt; although I have been assured by every person of whom I have made enquiry, that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit, instead of the number of admirers her beauty usually drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloak which covered her bosom; her modesty taking the alarm, made her start back a few steps; she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground: the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs, with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the properest posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; sometimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye; and leap-

of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though the prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason: but when this matter is thoroughly investigated, there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed. For there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorized by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei Voloshok, and other places: but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerzhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves and families.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing strikes, either a reader or a stranger, more than the facility with which the Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journeys. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, already described, they travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so sleep and travel night and day. They are wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journeys, is drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS } As the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its
SUBJECT TO RUSSIA, } most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different
people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a
vast variety of character and manners; and the great reformatations introduced of

ing backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shirt. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. In 1762, she was recalled from banishment by Peter III.

late years, as well as the discoveries made render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they now make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tcheremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kafan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astrachan and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Cossacs*, who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects of the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation choose a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties: They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossacs of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, some of the Zaparovian Cossacs, who were settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kafan, and of those derived from them, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The

Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and school master; though some of these priests and school-masters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk, and Astrachan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, besides what these little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter: coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but, as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. These villages were at first composed of troops of wandering shepherds; but being drawn gradually closer together by successive population, they found themselves under the necessity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow; for which reason they use more manure than the Russians. They are much attached to the cultivation of bees; many of them are perfect masters of this part of rural oeconomy, and reap great profit from it. Most of the villages also contain tanners, shoe-makers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters. The laborious females spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The moveables of these Tartars are, for the most part, only such as are necessary to the real wants of life. Their catalogue of kitchen and table furniture is very short; and they have but few utensils of agriculture and mechanics. A chest or two, some carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches that they use instead of beds, with a few chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be seen in their houses; though some of the principal people have stuffed cushions and pillows on their sleeping benches. But chairs and tables are only seen in towns; and even there, never but in the houses of such as have business with foreigners. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench serves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themselves round the dishes, each person sitting on his heels, after the oriental manner. They make ablutions, and say prayers, at the beginning and end of all their meals. The Tartars of Kasan, as well as most of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite, both among one another, and towards strangers. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them: and a grey beard is considered as naturally entitling a man to respect. They are fond of asking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are the arbitrators in all disputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Astrachan are perfectly similar with those of the Tartars of Kasan. In the city of

Astrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, and Bougharians: and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The *Fins* are of Asiatic origin, and have a close resemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have schools and academies, and make some progress in the arts and sciences. They profess the Lutheran faith, and use the Christian era in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercise most of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a considerable degree of freedom, as the Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatic, in the government of Kasan. This nation was one of those who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but, since it has been subjected to Russia, it has preferred the quiet and security which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdsmen and shepherds, and fixed habitations to their ancient tents. The *Votiaks* are of a middle stature, and generally red haired; they are honest, peaceable, and hospitable; but superstitious, and very credulous. They are assiduous in rural oeconomy, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chase; in the latter they use indifferently the bow or fire-arms. In their leisure hours many of them employ themselves in making all sorts of turnery, such as cups, spoons, and shuttles; and others varnish all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in sewing, in making linen, coarse cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the *Votiaks* are Christians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolators; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Ostiaks*, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. As these people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, they chuse their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the case with other Finnish nations. These people have a singular custom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the presence of her father-in-law; nor is the son-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. They are most of them idolators; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after death a happiness at least equal to that which they expect for themselves. Whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury they have done him. They also hang up his skin, to which they shew many civilities, and pay many fine compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of spirits. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great estimation among all the Pagan nations of the north and north-east.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. They are of a gay disposition, honest, laborious, and acute; but slovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely passionate. Their women are well made, robust, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the use

of letters, as well as some of their kindred nations: they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they observe in their forests. They distinguish themselves into tribes or races: and a Vogoul village is commonly composed only of one family, whose chief or elder performs the functions of staroste, or magistrate of the village. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tschouwasches* dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the governments of Nischnei-Novogorod, Kasan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that, on the wedding night, the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. A late writer says, "Among the *Tschouwasches* the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply: a custom calculated to prevent domestic broils. Accordingly quarrels are very uncommon in the families of the *Tschouwasches*."

The *Kirguisians* have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterizes the Tartars of Kasan. They have a sharp, but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those Tartars. They have good natural sense, and are affable, and high-spirited; but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their principal occupation. As their courses are regulated by necessity, in summer they traverse the northern deserts, and in winter the southern parts. It is only when they have nothing else to do that they follow hunting and fishing, and agriculture is absolutely unknown to them. Their troops of cattle consist of horses, camels, cows, goats, and sheep, which supply them both with food and raiment. Camels are of great service to them throughout their whole economy, carrying their huts and furniture at every change of station, which they do to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The *Kirguisians* dress in the eastern manner, but their clothes are for the most part better than those worn by the other Tartars. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke, and take snuff: they keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children and slaves.

The *Tungusians* form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulations; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the

compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dextrous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose and a short chin, their complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. The women are of the same shape and make with the men, and the skin of their face a wholesome white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and industrious. The standing character of this tribe is, rough, but less dissolute and base than they are commonly supposed to be. They are much attached to their chiefs or masters, but their active spirit, and their improvidence and carelessness, make them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they use more stratagem than violence, and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits, they are seldom accompanied with murder. They are superstitious about good and bad days, and have written laws which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. A rape and adultery is punished with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their speech is a mongrel dialect with many Tartarian words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The sole profession among them is the breeding of cattle; they pursue the chase as an amusement; their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Russians *kibirka*, and much resemble the Kirguisians. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food consists of animals tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and let it stink ever so much; so that in every herd the flesh market hath the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion; they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The *Kamtshadals* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with fables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert in fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. Their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fishing, they sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming different wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: but much of their time is passed in absolute idleness; for they are generally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chase. They live in villages, consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate and form a new village. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtschadals believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance; and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this wide and forlorn region, that was so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have lately been discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, and which is said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. But Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be discussed here. It is sufficient to say, that they deny the pope's supremacy; and though they disclaim image-worship, they retain many idolatrous and superstitious customs. Their churches are full of pictures of saints whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts and lents, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments and Trinity. They oblige their bishops, but not their priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great shewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more, than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himself the head of the church; and preserved the subordinations of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops. Their priests have no fixed income, but depend for subsistence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after establishing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. The abuses of them, however, are in a great measure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till she is fifty; and even then not without permission of their superiors.

The conquered provinces, as already observed, retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta: the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Slavonian; their priests, however, and the most learned of their clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and (it is said) those who know that language in its purity, are at no loss for understanding it in its corrupted state. The Russians have thirty-six letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Russians, hitherto, have made but an inconsiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their sovereigns of late, in the institution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced sufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; especially those that relate to astro-

nomY, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal, at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and classical; and the progress which learning has made in that empire since the beginning of this century, with the specimens of literature published both at Petersburg and Moscow, is an evidence, that the Russians are not unqualified to shine in the arts and sciences. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A small glimmering, like the first day-break, was seen under Czar Iwan in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz: but under Peter it burst forth with the splendor of a rising sun, and hath continued ever since to ascend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries; who furnish medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within these few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empress Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an university in this city. The present empress has also founded an university at Petersburg, and invited some of the most learned foreigners * in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; and also a military academy, where the young nobility and officers sons are taught the art of war.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, } Petersburg naturally takes the lead in this division. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulph. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so waterish and swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into too minute a description of this wonderful city, it is sufficient to say, that it extends about six miles every way and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empress's expence; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life, and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a Foundling Hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then after the utmost attention to her, she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer time is surprising. In winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed, that there are 400,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches, for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace,

* The present Professor of English and Italian is an Irishman, a Mr. Kennedy.

near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that side next the sea by the fortrefs of Cronstadt; which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulph of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country-houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it still continues considerable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It stands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-east of London; and though its streets are not regular, it presents a very picturesque appearance: for it contains such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Busching give us any satisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profession. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or squares. Busching makes the merchants exchange to contain about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city displays a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: it stands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Krimlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver: the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. The public is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Basilides ordered the architect of the church of Jerusalem to be deprived of his eye-sight, that he might never contrive its equal. The story is improbable, and might take its rise from the arbitrary disposition of that great prince. I shall have occasion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moscow; where the inhabitants are so distractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous Holy House of Loreto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire says, that Peter who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he

was building Peterfburg; for he caufed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling Hofpital at Mofcow is an excellent institution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the prefent empress, and is fupported by voluntary contributions, legacies and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular fhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eftablifhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty of choofing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpofe there are different fpecies of manufactures eftablifhed in the hofpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeship, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of fetting up for themfelves: a fum of money is beftowed upon each foundling for that purpofe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruffian empire. This is a very confiderable privilege in Ruffia, where the peafants are flaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiffion of their mafters.

Nothing can be faid with certainty as to the population of Mofcow. When lord Carliffe was the Englifh ambaffador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compafs, and the number of houfes was computed at 40,000. Voltaire fays, that when he wrote, Mofcow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoft impoffible to make an eftimate of its prefent population.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruffia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many fupendous monuments of the public fpirit of her fovereign; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old fepulchres of an unknown nation, whofe inftruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiftory at Peterfburg, is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his fkin, and the hair upon it perfect. I have already hinted at the paffion the Ruffians have for bell-ringing; and we are told, that the great bell of Mofcow, the largeft in the world, weighs 443,772 pounds weight. It is 19 feet high, and 23 in diameter; and was caft in the reign of the empress Anne; but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; fo that it lately lay in a manner ufelefs. Mr. Bruce, in his late Memoirs, mentions a bell at Mofcow, founded in Czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, 64 in circumference, and two in thicknefs, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Peterfburg, and raifing it of a fudden from a few fifhing-huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curiofity hardly to be paralleled fince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The fame may be faid of the fortrefs of Cronftadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterfburg, which is almoft impregnable. This fortrefs and city employed, for fome years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little affiftance from fome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raifed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be faid to have poffeffed a fhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perfon in all thefe amazing works, with the fame affiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MA-
RITIME FORCE.

In treating of the Russian commerce, former accounts are of little service at this time, because of its great improvements and variations. By the best and surest information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to four millions of rubles; and her imports do not exceed three millions; so that the balance of trade is yearly 225,000*l.* sterling in her favour.

Russia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, ising-glass, linseed-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs bristles, musk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia.

Her foreign commerce is much increased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishing of her new emporium of Petersburg; whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy. The Ukraine may be called the granaries of the empire; the best corn, hemp, flax, honey and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia near the river Oxus in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also from the annual fair at Samarcand; she likewise trades to Persia by Astrachan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk. The Empress, in the year 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherson, Sebastopolis, and Ipeodossi (formerly Cassa), in the province of Taurica, as in Petersburg.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Petersburg, Riga, Revel, Pernau, Narva, Wibourg, Fredericksham, Astrachan and Kola; and the three opened in their new conquests. This town is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, except the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel, by building Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandize. Their masts and timber for the dock yards come chiefly from the forests of Kasan, that border on the province of Astrachan.

The present state of their navy, according to a late list, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 101 galleys, 10 proams from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, seven pinks, &c.; 15,000 sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships, or in the dock-yards. The harbour is at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large basin will contain near 600 sail of ships.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND
DISTINCTION OF RANK.

The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic in the fullest extent of those terms, and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects; who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be seized upon and sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works.

and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. Persons of any rank may be banished into Siberia for the slightest political intrigue, and their possessions being confiscated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier. The secret court of chancery, which is a tribunal composed of a few ministers chosen by the sovereign, leaves the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. Even the nobility of Russia, being thus brought under the yoke of the most dreadful slavery, do not fail to retaliate upon the people, who are slaves to the nobles as well as to the sovereign.

The system of civil laws at present established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. But the present Empress has made some attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of justice here were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the Empress hath lately made some judicious regulations, and fixed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws for which she hath given instructions, will soon be produced, to increase the people's liberty, security and felicity.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The late Empresses took the title of Autocratrix; which implies, that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till they were reduced by the Czar; but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the present and late Empresses have introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at present, far superior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, especially her present Imperial majesty, must have greatly added to their income, which can scarcely be reckoned at less than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly six millions sterling annually. Thus computed:

	RUBLES.
Capitation tax, - - - - -	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties, - - - - -	7,000,000
Her own estates, with other dominions taken from the clergy, - - - - - }	6,000,000
Produce of the mines, - - - - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of distilled liquors, - - - - -	4,000,000
Monopoly of salt, - - - - -	1,800,000
	<hr/>
	28,800,000

The deficiency of the sum total may be easily made up by the profit arising from stamp-paper, patents, post-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, besides *one* per cent. every Russian merchant is obliged to pay on his yearly capital.

When the reader considers this sum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very considerable revenue. That it is so, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present emperors, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do we find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire says, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the sum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. sterling). This income was at that time sufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and sea service. The other expences, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors, is very considerable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants splendid; and the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, costs her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expences of state.

Some of the Russian revenues arise from monopolies; which are often necessary in the infancy of commerce. The most hazardous enterprise undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in seizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and necessity required that the greatest part of them should be restored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his excessive power. The clergy are taxed in Russia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown arise from taxes upon estates, bagnios, bees, mills, fisheries, and other particulars.

The Russian armies are raised at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a soldier scarcely amounts to 30 shillings yearly; in garrison he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a sailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found in provisions when ashore.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the most neglected parts of the Russian empire at present, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Asia, may see the advantages of their situation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richest provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In latter times, the Asiatic part of Russia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in History; and nothing is more certain, than that the conquest of Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of those princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the 9th century, but they have vended a tradition, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by some considered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a simple boatman, who used to transport goods and passengers across the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princess of this country, called Olha, is said to have been baptised at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Con-

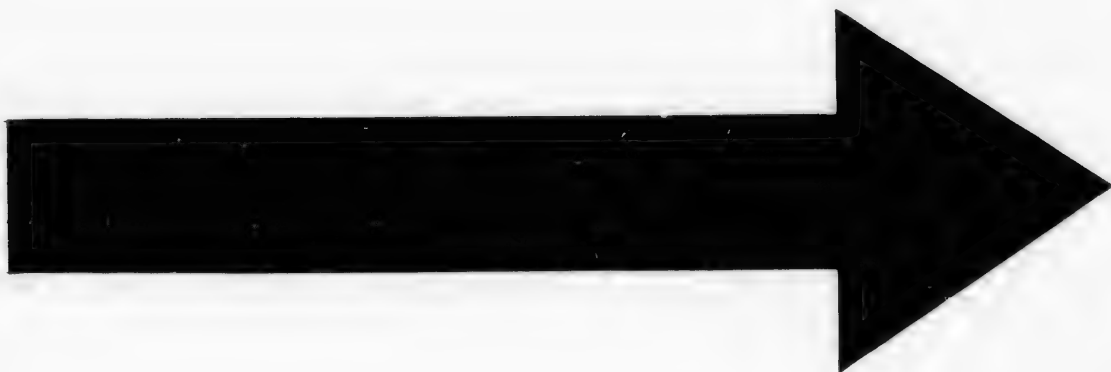
stantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Basilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is said to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and silver.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Kasan and Astrachan Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Esthonia, to throw themselves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the sovereign of Russia took the title of Welike Knez, i. e. great prince, great lord, or great chief; which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, was added to that of the Russian sovereigns, but it seems to have been of Persian or Asiatic original; because, at first, it was applied only to Kasan, Astrachan, and the Asian Siberia. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled up by a set of weak cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whose information I prefer, as it seems to be the most authentic, assassinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had escaped from his murderers; and with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party (which every tyrant has against him), he drove out the usurper, and seized the crown himself. The imposture was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, because the people were not pleased with him, and he was murdered. Three other false Demetrius's started up one after another.

These impostures prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyards, impelled by their despair, so late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son to Sigilmund II. of Poland, had been declared Czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended of the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants; and there was detained prisoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyards met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son, Michael Fadorowitz, of the house of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their sovereign. The father being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claims of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two people, which gave Michael a kind of a breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England sent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of

money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court, however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of Great duke and lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which shews him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but the laws and usages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wisdom and the mildness of his character, he restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects. He encouraged them to industry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own person. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miscellaneous customs of their subjects, and which are as follow. His czarish majesty's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited by the czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father who pleased Michael, was Strefschenn; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand signior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the grand signior's sabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice; and greatly improved his army by mending its discipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of strangers, most of whom were Scotch. He cultivated a polite correspondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambassadors not to kiss the pope's toe. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenko Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astrachan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, was hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions: and instead of putting to death, or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He was of a gentle disposition, and weak constitution; fond of pomp and magnificence; and in gratifying this propensity contributed to polish his subjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance, which they soon began to adopt and imitate. He delighted much in horses, and he rendered a real service to his country, in the beginning and establishing very fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elsewhere. He reigned seven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he said to them, "Hear my last sentiments; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan necessarily must affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Russia; he cannot take it amiss, if I recommend to you to set him aside, and to let your ap-



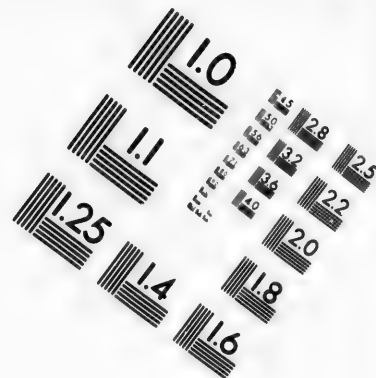
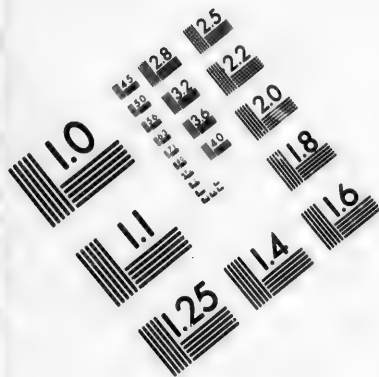
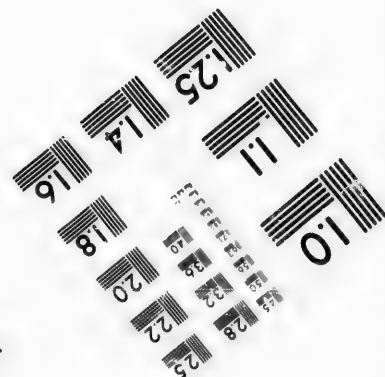
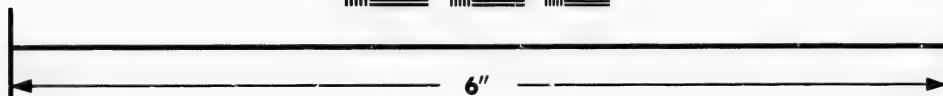
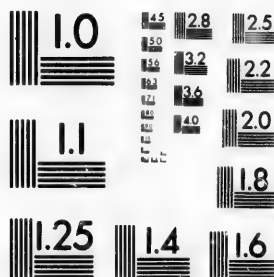
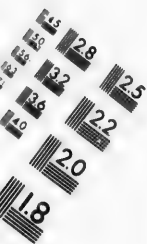


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"probation fall on Peter, who to a robust constitution joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." But this wife destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exercised the government herself, with the greatest severity and inhumanity: for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given by Voltaire, of her barbarous administration, are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes Iwan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate and co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin, who is said to have been a man of sense and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about 17 years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced herself to retire to a monastery. Galitzin's life was spared, but his great estate was confiscated; and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment, "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Iwan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

It far exceeds the bounds prescribed to this work, to give even a summary detail of this great prince's actions. They may be collected from the histories of the northern nations, Poland, Germany, and other countries; some of which I have already exhibited, as I intend to do the rest. All therefore that is necessary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vast reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with Germans and Dutch; with the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the excellent discipline, introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, excepting

two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage: and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, distinct from merit; and he at last married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity, as already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts and sciences: and, upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the Czarowitz, and who marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alledged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince should be found guilty; and the very reading of the sentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is said, that as soon as the sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, and military laws condemn to death, without mercy, all those whose attempts against their father and their sovereign are manifest," he fell into the most violent convulsions, from which it was with the greatest difficulty that he regained a little interval of sense, during which he desired his father would come to see him, when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. After this event, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek Empress, and to be recognized as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign; in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the Czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small-pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was by the destination of the late Empress, entitled to the crown: but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne duchess of Courland, second daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldest brother; though her eldest sister the duchess of Mecklenburgh was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgorucki family, who had imposed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern.

She raised her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the son of her niece the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswic Wolfenbittel, was, by her will, entitled to the succession: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburgh to arrest Biron; who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburgh and her husband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, disagreeable not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed Empress of the Russians; and the princess of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Russia: but at the same time she punished the counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and settled, as we have already seen, the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war, which had been stirred up against her, with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her elder sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne, she called him to her court; where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, by whom he had a son, who is now heir to the Russian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political, and some private reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the success of the war, which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such, as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, and duke of Holstein: a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said, that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alleged, that he had formed a resolution to destroy both his Empress and her son, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head: and even the advocates of Peter the

Third acknowledge, that he had resolved to shut up his wife and son in a convent, to place his mistress upon the throne, and to change the order of succession. However, the execution of his designs was prevented by an almost general conspiracy being formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. That his conduct with regard to Prussia was not the sole cause of his deposition, seems pretty evident from the measures of his successor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catherine II. That princess with regard to Prussia, trod in her husband's steps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The most remarkable domestic occurrence of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, son to the prince of Mecklenburgh.

This young prince as soon as he came into the world was designed, though unjustly and illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Russia, after the death of his great aunt, the empress Anna Iwanowna; but by the advancement of the empress Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obscure life in the castle of Schlusselfbourg under a strong guard, who had particular orders, that if any person, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they should kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his prison when the empress Catherine II. mounted the throne, and as the revolution which deposed her husband Peter III. had occasioned a strong ferment in the minds of the people, Catherine was apprehensive that some attempts might be made in favour of Iwan: she therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entrusted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her interest. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at least pretended so, to deliver Iwan by force of arms from the fortrefs of Schlusselfbourg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arrested, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithstanding this, it has been represented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he suffered for executing the instructions that he had received.

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the case when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Russia, the empress Catherine sent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed in order to secure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and Protestant subjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majesty's armies gave to the Roman Catholic Poles, by their residence in Poland, increased the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies against all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia with regard to Poland, gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the Grand Signior sent Obreskoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the Seven Towers, declared war against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Poland. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Gueray, Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Russian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand families captive. In April following, the Grand Vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the

Danube. In the mean time, prince Gallitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Niefter, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. Having accordingly crossed the Niefter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince having made the necessary dispositions, attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortrefs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they had such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, and their pursuit was at length only stopped by the palisadoes of the fortrefs. Soon after, the town was set on fire by red hot balls, and a great number of Jews and Christians took refuge in the Russian camp. From these successes of the Russians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen into their hands. But this was not the case; for prince Gallitzin thought proper to retire from Choczim, and to repass the Niefter. The reasons assigned for his conduct were, that Choczim was garrisoned by 18,000 men well provided with artillery; that several great bodies of Turkish troops appeared in the neighbourhood; that the country was so wasted, the army could not be supplied with provisions; and that prince Gallitzin, not having sufficient artillery along with him, chose for the present to suspend his design of besieging the place. Indeed, it appears that the Turkish cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt some small towns, and destroyed some Russian magazines.

While the Russians and Turks were attacking each other in different places of their dominions on the side of Europe, the Tartar Asiatic nations, in their different interests, extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. On the 9th of May, a bloody engagement was fought between the Kalmucs, and those Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caspian seas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till sun-set; when the Kalmucs, by the assistance of some Russian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Cossacs, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great slaughter, as the Kalmucs gave no quarter. On the other hand, the European Tartars penetrated into the Russian Ukraine on the side of Backmuth, where they made great devastations in the country.

On the 13th of July, a very obstinate battle was fought between a considerable Turkish army, and the Russian under prince Gallitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Russians immediately invested Choczim; but the garrison, being numerous, made frequent sallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, who was now considerably advanced on this side of the Danube. Several actions ensued, and prince Gallitzin was at length obliged to retreat from Choczim, and again to repass the Niefter. It was computed that the siege of Choczim, and the actions consequent to it, cost the Russians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janissaries: so

that in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the councils that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, General Romanzow committed great devastations upon the Turks in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost totally destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Niester, and effectually defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Matters being thus circumstanced, on the third of September 8000 Turks, consisting entirely of Janizaries and Spahis, the names that distinguish the two celebrated corps of their bravest and best-disciplined foot and horse, passed the river in the night, and at the break of day attacked a body of Russians who were encamped on this side. Prince Repnin, who was posted in the neighbourhood, marched immediately to the relief of this corps, and attacked the Turks at the head of four regiments with fixed bayonets. The engagement was furious and bloody, and the Turks were driven back and pursued to the river, which they endeavoured to repass in the greatest disorder and confusion; above 4000 of their number being either killed or wounded in this ill-judged attempt. But this misfortune was not sufficient to convince the grand vizir, who was rash and obstinate, of the danger of sending detachments across a great river, in the face of a powerful enemy, without communication, or a probability of support. Having therefore laid three bridges over the Niester, the Turkish army, without any pretence of stratagem or deception, began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Gallitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was very severe, and continued from seven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obstinacy; but they were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repass the river with great loss, and in the utmost disorder and confusion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Gallitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said, that the loss of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this consideration did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, eight thousand Janizaries, and four thousand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Niester carried away and totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued, in which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which some few hundred of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles

covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the strong fortress of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuously towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill-conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the best and bravest of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and that 40,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Gallitzin placed a garrison of four regiments in the fortress of Choczim, and soon after resigned the command of the army to General Count Romanzow, and returned to Petersburg, covered with laurels.

The Russians continued to carry on the war with success: they over-run the great province of Moldavia, and General Elmt took possession of the capital city of Jassy without opposition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always secretly favoured the Russians, they now took this opportunity of their success, and the absence of the Turks, to declare themselves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards those of Wallachia, acknowledged the Empress of Russia their sovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, General Romanzow defeated a Turkish army, near the river Larga: the Turks are said to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the Khan of the Crimea. But on the second of August, the same Russian General obtained a still greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is said that above 7000 Turks were killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; a vast quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of brass cannon, and some thousand carriages loaded with provisions, fell into the hands of the Russians.

But it was not only by land that the Russians carried on the war successfully against the Turks. The Empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian-built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side. And, by means of this fleet, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia. It is observable, that in this attempt of the Russians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly assisted by England; but whether in this the English government was influenced by principles of sound policy, may very reasonably be questioned.

The war between the Russians and the Turks still continued to be carried on by land, as well as by sea, to the advantage of the former; but at length some attempts were made to negotiate a peace: it was, however, a long time before matters could be accommodated between these great contending powers; hostilities were repeatedly suspended, and afterwards renewed; but at last a peace was concluded, on the 21st of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, and by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all parts of the Ottoman empire.

Before the conclusion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Russia, which gave much alarm to the court of Petersburg. A Cossack, whose name was Pugatscheff, assumed the name and character of the late unfortunate Emperor Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kafan, and pretended, that he made his escape, through an extraordinary interposition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to assassinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is said to have been a striking

resemblance in his person to that of the late emperor, which induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he possessed abilities and address, his followers soon became very numerous; and he at length found himself so powerful, his followers being armed, and provided with artillery, that he stood several engagements with able Russian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being at last totally defeated, and taken prisoner, he was brought to Moscow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21st of January, 1775.

The present Empress of Russia, notwithstanding the very unfavourable circumstances which attended her taking possession of the government of that empire, has, since the commencement of her reign, filled her high station with distinguished reputation and ability. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her subjects: though the extreme despotism of the Russian government is a great impediment to the progress of the arts and sciences, and to the real prosperity of this empire. Her imperial majesty has, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vast empire, and particularly in the courts of justice. One of these is, the abolition of the use of torture; and she has also adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws for which she hath given her instructions is yet wanting to give political felicity to an oppressed people. But one of the most remarkable transactions of her reign, is her establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. By the code of maritime law, which her imperial majesty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ships are to enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the subjects of belligerent powers are looked upon to be as free, on board such neutral ships, excepting only such goods as are expressly stipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780 that her imperial majesty invited the powers not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Those who engaged in it were to make a common cause of it at sea, against any of the belligerent powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, these principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catherine II. Empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt Zerbitz, was born in 1729, and ascended the throne in 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince whilst duke of Holstein Gottorp, in 1745, by whom she had issue Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Russia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his present duchess, the princess of Wirtemberg, has had two sons Alexander and Constantine, and a daughter Alexandrina Pawleona.

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

I SHALL, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the islands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the description of that ancient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I shall comprehend under one head, those of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Western isles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The islands of Shetland lie north-east of the Orkades, or Orkney-islands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and are part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orkades lie north of Dungsby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Western isles are very numerous, and some of them large; situated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude. *(former name of the islands)*

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of these islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: the rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fisherman was imprisoned in May, for publishing the account of the prince and princess of Orange being raised to the throne of England the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number (though many of them are uninhabited), is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and it is the seat of a presbytery. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at Midsummer, and their fishing season lasts six months.

The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number (though several of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is thirty-three miles, and its breadth, in some places, nine. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in some places, almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are, Lewis, or Harries (for they both form but one island), which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth, its chief town is Stornavay. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jura, are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles, but they have no towns

Principal of islands by number to have been Shetland

worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fishing. I shall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides islands, which are at present of small importance, either to the public, or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous isle of Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason, that I can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are protestant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. } It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the islands belonging to Scotland can be so minutely described here, as they have been by some other authors; not so much on account of their importance, as their curiosity. Those of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William called the conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became subject to the crown of Denmark. Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps, they are more honest and religious. Men of fortune there have improved their estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling, and other houses, in a modern taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already described, in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, who build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from any diseases known to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, and according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of these three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present, their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch High-

See Martin's most entertaining account of

landers, who shall hereafter be described. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands, perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides,

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their shanachies or story-tellers supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewise attended, when he appears abroad, with his musician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner, but, as it is said, more sumptuously than the English minstrels of former times*. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders so late as the beginning of the present century. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break those connections, which experience has shewn to be so dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders already described; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter-milk, and whey; and also mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to industry, and indeed to domestic and personal cleanliness. The agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this subject, should omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the *second sight*. It would be equally absurd to attempt to disprove the reality of the instances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and forms of those revelations, or that they have any fixed methods for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that amidst many thousands of predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these being well attested, gave a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the most westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though very plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are there found; but the vast in-

1. sup. 215 * See Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry, in 3 vols.

1. sup. 215 * See Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry, in 3 vols.
 I found from all that I saw of the Hebrides, that the
 language is still in general, the same as it was
 when the first of them were settled in the year 1700.
 The dialect of those who settled in the year 1700.

tercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language is mixed with the Slavonian and Teutonic, which last has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but the Roman Catholic religion still prevails among some of the islanders.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philosophy to account for the reason, yet it is certain that the soil, both of the northern and western islands belonging to Scotland, has suffered an amazing alteration. It is evident, that many of these islands have been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees, however, are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily shews, that in the soil of the northern and western islands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for such spots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver mines; marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that were reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] These are all in their infancy in those islands. The reader can easily suppose, that their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are the best in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no small progress in these islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother-country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be said on this head, that is peculiar to these islands. In the countries already described, mention has been made of most of the birds and fishes that have been discovered here; only it is thought that they contain a species of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong, and hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coasts of these islands, till within these 20 years, seemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnish the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their

*in Celtic Empire. situated on the hills of the
to archangel. Dalrymple, 1757*

native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thousand buffes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fishery, besides those fitted out by the Hamburgers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } These islands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what hath been already observed, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone, called a dwarf-stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the classical temples remaining in these islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury. Others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright: some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island, it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island; and which give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves: the phaeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprising phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

But some of the most astonishing appearances in nature have remained undescribed, and, till lately, unobserved even by the natives of these islands. A discovery reserved for the inquisitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, says, "We were no sooner arrived, than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, formed an ample pediment; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost into the shape of those used in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to those of nature. Where is now the boast of the architect: regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in her possession; and here it has been for ages undescribed.—Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is past all description: here they are bare to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible."—Mr. Banks particularizes sundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks describes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of such reflections, we proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giant's Causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers*. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour,

* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:—

	Feet		Feet
Length of the cave from the arch without	371	At the end	70
From the pitch of the arch	250	Height of an outside pillar	39
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53	Of one at the N. W. corner	54
At the farther end	40	Depth of water at the mouth	18
Height of the arch at the mouth	117	At the bottom	9

A a 2

with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without: and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. "On the west," says he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treashunish isles. Nearest lies Staffa, a new Giant's Causeway, rising amidst the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun."—And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject. "We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltic columns, resembling the Giant's Causeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five, and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roads entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltic I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running from north to south, nearly in a meridian: the Giant's Causeway appears first; Staffa, &c. succeeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and, finally, those columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast links of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

S C O T L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles		Degrees.
Length	300 }	between	{ 54 and 59 North latitude.
Breadth	190 }		{ 1 and 6 West longitude.

NAME.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, but of the Celtæ or Gauls which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immense country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Ecoffe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and English.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 square miles, is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucalionian, German, and Irish seas, or, more properly, the Atlantic Ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the countries south of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the north of the same river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers, with less geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and customs of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or Shires, are allotted to the southern divisions, and 15 to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into Sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh (429*)	{ Mid-Lothian — — }	{ Edinburgh, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 56. Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington (121)	{ East-Lothian — — }	{ Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merse, anciently Berwick† (114)	{ The Merches, and Lauderdale — — }	{ Dunfermline, and Lauder.
4. Roxburgh (165)	{ Tiviotdale, Liddale, Eskdale and Eufdale — — }	{ Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose.
5. Selkirk (19)	{ Ettrick Forest — — }	{ Selkirk.
6. Peebles (42)	{ Tweeddale — — }	{ Peebles.
7. Lanerk (388)	{ Clydesdale — — }	{ Glasgow, W. lon. 4-5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries (188)	{ Nithsdale, Annandale — — }	{ Dumfries, Annan.
9. Wigtown (190)	{ Galloway, West Part — — }	{ Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright (100)	{ Galloway, East Part — — }	{ Kircudbright.
11. Air (280)	{ Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham — — }	{ Air, Kilmarnock, Irwan, Maybole, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton (66)	{ Lenox — — }	{ Dumbarton — — }
13. Bute (34) and 14. Caithness (105)	{ Bute, Arran, and Caithness — — }	{ Rothsay. — — Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurso.
15. Renfrew (126)	{ Renfrew — — }	{ Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, & Port Glasgow.
16. Stirling (76)	{ Stirling — — }	{ Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow (80)	{ West Lothian — — }	{ Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, & Queensferry.
18. Argyle (314)	{ Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintyre, and Lorn, with Part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wigt, Tarrif, Col, and Lismore — — }	{ Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown.
19. Perth (570)	{ Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenfield, & Raynork — — }	{ Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.

* The numbers shew the proportion of militia as proposed to be raised in each shire, when that scheme was laid before parliament in 1775. *by Lord Mount Stuart*

† Berwick, on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
20. Kincardin	(109)	{ Merns — — }	{ Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardin.
21. Aberdeen	(551)	{ Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie }	{ Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraserburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness	(282)	{ Aird, Strathglaß, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmorison — — }	{ Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augustus, Boileau.
23. Nairne (27) and 24. Cromartie (24)		{ Western Part of Murray and Cromartie — }	{ Nairne, Cromartie.
25. Fife —	(387)	{ Fife — — }	{ St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Island, Dumfermline, Dylart, Anstruther and Aberdour.
26. Forfar —	(326)	{ Forfar, Angus — }	{ Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
27. Bamff —	(182)	{ Bamff, Strathdobern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan }	{ Bamff and Cullen.
28. Sutherland	(100)	{ Strathnaver and Sutherland — — — }	{ Strathy and Dornoch.
29. Clacmannan (31) and 30. Kinross (23)		{ Fife Part — — }	{ Culroß, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinross.
31. Ross —	(201)	{ Eastern and Western Ross, Isle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcastle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald — — }	{ Taine, Dingwall, Forroße, Rosamarkie, and New Kelfo.
32. Elgin —	(145)	{ Murray and Strathspey }	{ Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney —	(183)	{ Isles of Orkney and Shetland — — }	{ Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat 61.

In all thirty-three shires, which choose thirty representatives to sit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithness choosing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinross.

The royal Boroughs which choose representatives are,	
Edinburgh	I
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne	I
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres	I
Elgin, Cullen, Banchory, and Kintore	I
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose, Aberbrothock, and Brechin	I
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews	I
Grail, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenweem	I
Dyfert, Kirkcaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Island	I
Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culross, and Stirling	I
Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton	I
Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	I
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk	I
Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kircudbright	I
Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn	I
Air, Irwan, Rothsay, Campbeltown, and Inverary	I

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, and WATER.] In the northern parts day-light, at Midsummer, lasts eighteen hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the same proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and repositied in these vallies, afford them a vegetative nourishment, which is capable of carrying the strongest plants to perfection: though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country-houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyll and Athol, of lord Hopton, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil through which it passes. Water passing through a heavy soil is turbid and noxious, but filtrating through sand or gravel, it is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is in general the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates, in proportion as the land is worse.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called

Lammar-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, sometimes go by the Celtic word *Laws*. Many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularized here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German sea to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south-west to south-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior sort, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fishes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers go by the name of *Els*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in Great Britain, was undertaken at a very considerable expence, by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-ness, Loch Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber, receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glencuce and Wigtown bay; sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornock.

See also the notes on the map

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be seen in Scotland. Several woods, however, still remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconvenience already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet, it is certain, that it contains such, or at least that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of dessert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been recovered. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins struck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver mines that are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the public. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of the most beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-mosses being in many parts, of the north especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however the taste for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconvenience.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire; alum mines have been found in Bamffshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, sea-shells, potters clay, and fullers earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taste the sweets, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

+ from Caledonia
+ from Caledonia
+ from Caledonia

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } It is certain, that the soil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said, that some tracts of the low countries at present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are far less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island; and agriculture is now perhaps as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very considerable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glasgow, who are the life and soul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no less attentive to the progress of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole island in general, the most essential service. The active genius of these people extends even to moors, rocks, and marshes, which being hitherto reckoned useless, were consequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain species of grain or timber, for which the soil is best adapted.

But the fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500*l.* per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, which still remains in a state of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places, the husbandmen barely exist upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30*l.* per ann. the cattle are lean and small, the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. Indeed, from a mistaken notion of the landed people in general, the greatest part of the kingdom lies naked and exposed, for want of such hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, as occupying more room than what they call stone inclosures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of loose stones, without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are said to fall little, if at all, short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries; though it must be owned, that many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces the *alga-marina*, dulce or dulish a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fishes on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described; but the Scots have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture: for societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate the Dutch themselves in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and south-

ern markets, than the English or Irish can, are of great service to the nation, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouse and heath-cock, which is a most delicious bird, as likewise are the capercaillie, and the tarmacan, which is of the pheasant kind: but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and when discovered are very shy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vast increase of manufacturers, whose demand for butchers meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The population of Scotland is generally fixed
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } at about a million and a half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjecture, as I know of no attempt that has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and, by the best information, they make the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to observe, that above 60,000 of these were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and creditable histories, the population of Scotland in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English, without any sensible decrease (so far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned, and a kind of a characteristical feature, that of high-cheek bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

It remains perhaps a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature,

however slight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the same time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 300*l.* a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing in their manners, and stile of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid oeconomy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed were it not well attested.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this advantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity, which, however irregular, is their most essential characteristic, which is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unfortunate Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented by his countrymen, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in their church music, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time in their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the particular diversions practised by the gentlemen, is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and strength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it

in fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of Curling is likewise, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing summer and winter diversions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen considering it as too athletic and mechanical.

[LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place these two articles under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This stuff consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which, where skilfully managed, produce a pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues: sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a *phelg*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and I make no doubt is the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, and this they term the *philibeg*, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dress), seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with strait sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diffused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoso may find a strong resemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, and those of the Tuscans (who were unquestionably of Celtic original), as they are to be seen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress, rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden, rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature

to force them into a total change of their dress. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that some of the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and for its lightness and freedom of the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time.

The dress of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-Country, differ little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear. The dress of the women of all ranks is much the same in both kingdoms, but not so as to their neatness, and the cleanliness of the female servants.

The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic.

PUNISHMENTS.] These are pretty much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden: the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl of Morton, and it was first used for the execution of himself.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the apostle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the established religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seem to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overseers or bishops chosen by themselves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence or rank over the rest of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at last prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for many ages overspread Europe; though their dependence upon the pope was very slender, when compared to the implicit subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, so late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they disappeared. But it is worthy of observation, that the opposition to the old Religion in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Hus, and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther, and John Calvin.

The Reformation in Scotland began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apostle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility who had parcelled out these possessions for themselves, did not at first discourage this notion; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in

his designs, which, through the fury of the mob, destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings, and most scandalously left the reformed clergy to live almost in a state of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great struggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and discipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the presbyterian clergy of vast importance to the state; and their revenues have been so much mended, that though no stipend there exceeds 150*l.* a year, few fall short of 60*l.* and none of 50*l.* If the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, the established clergy will have many unanswerable reasons to urge for the increase of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters; and it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the great and lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. In short, the power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain, and the Western Isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year; but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a

confession; which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general Assembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland: but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, sixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division; but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognisance of all ecclesiastical causes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the minister, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act pretty much as churchwardens do in England, by having the superintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is generally a lay person of quality or interest in the parish. They are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion-table.

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

A different set of dissenters in Scotland consists of the episcopalians, a few quakers, many Roman Catholics and other sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the restoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the established church of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refused to recognise king William's title. The partisans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the Presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of Toleration, as well attended. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having suppressed episcopacy in Scotland; the English bishops supply them with clergy qualified according to law, whose chapels are chiefly filled by the English, and such Scotch hearers of that persuasion as have places under the government.

The defection of some great families from the ancient worship, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands: and though a violent opposition has lately been raised against them, they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopricks, St. Andrews and Glasgow; and twelve bishopricks, which are Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dunblain, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invasion, which are come to our hands, are specimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard, and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is to this day the most classical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof, that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery, which in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His *Treatise on Fluxions* is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the sure, but almost deserted, tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simson, so well known over Europe, for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His *Elements of Euclid*, and above all, his *Conic Sections*, are sufficient, of themselves, to establish the scientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not rest on the character of a few mathematicians and astronomers. The fine arts have been called sisters to denote their affinity. There is the same connection between the sciences, particularly those which depend on observation. Mathematics and physics, properly so called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Fitcain, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, and Whytt, hold a distinguished place.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson.

But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of Dr. Hutcheson, § not to mention other works more subtle and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wish to practise it. Next to Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding, it is perhaps the best dissection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewise the most useful supplement to that essay.

It would be endless to mention all the individuals, who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly as those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with unfading laurels.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews*, founded in 1411.—Glasgow†, 1454.—Aberdeen‡, 1477.—And Edinburgh§, 1582.

§ Ireland also claims the honour of giving birth to this Gentleman, and upon, (apparently) good authority.

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Professors in

Greek,	Moral Philosophy,	Church History,
Humanity,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Logic,	Civil History,	

† Glasgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Professors in

Greek,	Moral Philosophy,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Natural Philosophy,	Civil and Scotch Law,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine,
Oriental Languages,	Practical Astronomy,	Anatomy.
Logic,	History,	

‡ Aberdeen has properly two colleges, viz. King's College, and Marischal College; King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Philosophy,	Civil Law,
Humanity,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Oriental Languages,		

Marischal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

Greek,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,
Oriental Languages,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Moral Philosophy and Logic,		

§ Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Professors in

Divinity,	Mathematics,	Materia Medica,
Church History,	Civil History,	Inst. of Physic and
Greek,	Natural History,	Medicine,
Humanity,	Scotch Law,	Practice of Medicine,
Hebrew,	Civil Law,	Chymistry,
Logic,	Law of Nature and Nations,	Anatomy,
Moral Philosophy,	Rhetoric, and Belles Lettres,	Midwifery.
Natural Philosophy,	Botany,	

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES }
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this division, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. This castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots, till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the high-street, which is on the ridge of a hill lying east and west; and the lanes running down its sides, north and south. In former times the town was surrounded by water, excepting towards the east; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses divided into stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious for the use of a family; so that the high-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad, and well paved, makes a most august appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line, and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock, inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins to the city. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills, at the distance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was so shockingly inconvenient, that the English, who seldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepest impressions of Scotch nastiness, which became proverbial. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia, is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited, where they are fully described.

Opposite the castle, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood-house. The inner quadrangle begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more uncomfortable than its situation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved crags and mountains, with scarcely a single tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of stone galleries supported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and

roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years ago, which the walls were unable to support.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, stands to the south west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. It contains several natural, and some literary curiosities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament-Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining to the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better suited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings;

but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have begun to build a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are to be built of stone, in an elegant taste, with all the conveniencies that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some are superbly finished in all the beauties of architecture, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town, is a narrow vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant design was frustrated, through the narrow ideas of the magistrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the grounds to inferior tradesmen upon building leases; this spot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuisance to those gentlemen who had been so liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the summit. A decision of the House of Lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally distinguished for his taste and good sense, heartily concurred) put a stop to these mean erections. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages.

Edinburgh contains a playhouse, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon, and here are 14; namely, surgeons, goldsmiths, skinnners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions, but at Edinburgh; they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of sentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises 16 companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burden. Its product, however, has been sufficient to defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing; some of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's a short way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopton-house, so called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, counted one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe: founded in the year 1440 by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and a matchless fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid Reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, and is at present in a thriving state. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns. The number of inhabitants in this city has been estimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well frequented university, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other. Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: it is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the Carle of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts; and has three churches.

Noble private edifices are so numerous, that to particularize them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to some of the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's surprise at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the

world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry in Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expence.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The Roman, and other antiquities, found
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } in Scotland, have of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, their pretences or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some fresh discoveries, an account of them could afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant; because at present they can be discovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The course of the Roman wall (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood*. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch, in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, so well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inscriptions found near it, a Roman castellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the most entire and best preserved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no less than five rows of ditches and six ramparts on the south side; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three of them are very distinct and plain, viz. the prætorial, decumana, and dextra.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; some of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are easily discernible in several northern counties, and are known by their square figures and difficult situations. Some houses of stupendous fabric remain in Ross-shire, but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, does not appear. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the descents of that people upon those coasts.

* Near the western extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonshire, a countryman, in digging a trench upon the declivity of a hill, upon which are seen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up several uncommon tiles, which exciting the curiosity of the peasantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an intire subterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart load of these materials. A gentleman who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the second day, to stop all farther proceedings, in hopes that some public spirited persons would, by taking off the surface, explore the whole without demolishing it. The tiles are of seven different sizes; the smallest being seven, and the largest twenty-one inches square. They are from two to three inches in thickness, of a reddish colour, and in a perfectly sound condition. The lesser ones compose several rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of passages about eighteen inches square; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, serve as a roof to support the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is surrounded by a subterraneous wall of hewn stone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a sooty kind of earth, were found in the passages; from which some have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the use of the neighbouring garrison.

Two Pictish monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without a stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it consists of sixty regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly and regularly and tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects that far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves, are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics not intelligible at this day, but minutely described by Mr. Gordon. Many other historical monuments of the Scots may be discovered on the like occasions: but it must be acknowledged, that the obscurity of their sculptures has encouraged a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I should neglect to mention the stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (says Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relief are carved thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Danish, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a very splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division on the reverse, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The west door is highly ornamented, there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles, may be mentioned Kildrummy castle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnifi-

cence, and often used as an asylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverurie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-marechals of Scotland, is also a large and lofty pile, situated on a steep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of much grandeur and antiquity.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scotch antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are easily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the Druidical erections in South-Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship, with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terra navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium near Dunstaffnage castle, is another yielding vast quantities of pumice or scoria of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the volcanic Iceland.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In these respects Scotland has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. Without entering into the disputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, and to carry on an East and West-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprize. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, by the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union. The intails and narrow settlements of family estates, and some remains of the feudal institutions, might contribute to the same cause.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the administration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more considerable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan: and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that Great Britain ever was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the British government, that the Scots have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

The increase of their shipping within these 30 years past has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabri-

cated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange for these, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immense saving of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coast, for they have a great concern in the whale fishery carried on upon the coast of Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable; as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fisheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increasing, open inexhaustible funds of wealth; their cured fish being by foreigners, and the English planters in America, preferred to those of Newfoundland.

The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciously calculated to promote the best of national purposes, its strength, and its commerce.

To encourage this fishery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but whether from the insufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpose, or any other cause, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only sinking their fortunes, but also borrowing to the utmost limits of their credit. The bounty has since been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the strongest assurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the strength of these promises they have again embarked in the fishery, and it is to be wished, that no consideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement so requisite to place this fishery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of these fisheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingshire. The linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalry from Ireland, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Osnaburgs, inckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of their home consumption; and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are likewise making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make at present some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vast progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their stones to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now

diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley alone employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delf-houses, and paper-mills, are erected every-where, and the Scotch carpeting makes neat furniture.

Having said thus much, I cannot avoid observing the prodigious disadvantages under which both the commercial and landed interest of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they spend their ready money. This is one of the evils arising to Scotland from the union, which removed the seat of her legislature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the resort of volunteer absentees to that capital. While this partiality subsists, the Scots will probably continue to be distressed for a currency of specie. How far paper can supply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be somewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vast manufactures and works now set on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reside in Scotland, have wisely abandoned French claret (though too much of it is still made use of in the country), and brandy, for rum produced in the British plantations; and their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as those in England; and it is said, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the Plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling answered to about an English sixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her son James VI. when the vast resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are still current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a *babie*; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation that we have made of the Scotch shilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denomination of sums. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign, and 12 com-

panies, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*. "None shall safely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient constitution of government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind, to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, viz.

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the christian people my subjects: First, That I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, in all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may shew mercy unto me, and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committed to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors, it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature: it named officers of state and privy-counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and son-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people; as appears by the acts still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most over-grown of his subjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. shewed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by their clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependance upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burghesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire),

and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes varied; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles: and though Charles I. wanted to form these lords of the articles into regular machines for his own despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how well they understood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princess of Orange.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. It is asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? The answer is, In order to preserve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore chose to submit to a temporary evil; but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquises, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had the same deliberate and decisive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assizes, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the states, only met for the purposes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great, were: the lord high chancellor, high-treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary: the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice clerk. Since the union none of these continue, excepting the lords privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk: a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the other two secretaries. The above officers of state sat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight marshal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the same in England. The same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord-register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-ad-

vocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scotch laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and also in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, hath interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistants to the lord-advocate. The office of justice-clerk, entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, while the justice-general, an office I shall describe hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be described here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex facialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, inasmuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the case in England, in all armorial affairs might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland before the revolution, had, or assumed inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is, that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any inquiry how far such an institution, in so narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the security of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I shall just add, that the lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) revertible by the British House of Lords, to which an appeal lies.

The justice court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without any necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the

exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000*l.* a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, That all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and steward-deputes, it is enacted, That there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them, as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three

hours, in the day time. These courts, however petty, were in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tythes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at present much diffused in Scotland.

From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extensive, and before the Union they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, such as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of salmon, herrings and other fish; and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation: they fix the staple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary: so that, in truth, the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. Upon the whole this is a very singular institution, and sufficiently proves the vast attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and constitution of Scotland, as they exist at present, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to descend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practices; and their acts of sederunt, answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pointing of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, dismiss this head without one observation,

which proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the Freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch constitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature of the Saxon Folc-mote, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the first inhabitants; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who settling in Scotland were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, most probably, were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies of the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying southward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people in process of time, were subdued by the Scots.

Having premised thus much, it is unnecessary for me to investigate the constitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is sufficient to add to what I have already said upon that head, that they seem to have been as forward as any of their southern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal some part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward, to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch historians, the first in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth already mentioned; and the other between Timmouth and the Solway Frith, which will be described in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the descendants of the

ancient Britons, forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scots monarchy suffered a short eclipse: but it broke out with more lustre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very sea.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those that are least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by degrees it fell into disuse, and it was at last settled in the right line.

While the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs, who then governed England, were not more successful against the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only against foreigners, but against their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which signify a *large head*, but most probably his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakespeare and who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. They were succeeded by Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. who was a wise and valiant prince; he was succeeded by Alexander I. and, upon his death, David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears, that David was one of the greatest princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator.

He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV. and he by William surnamed, from his valour, the Lion. William's son Alexander II. was succeeded in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders' daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowau, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's whole posterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, because it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol who was great-grandson to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandson to the same earl of Hun-

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tingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him: but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's consenting it.

After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours to annex their crown to his own; but though they were often defeated, and Edward for a short time made himself master of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt against him on every favourable opportunity. Those of them who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same; and for some time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him; and most barbarously carried off, or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster-Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their spirits were not to be subdued, endeavoured to caress them, and affected to treat them on a footing of an equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he had an eye upon the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far, that they formed violent cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this once more invaded Scotland, for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horsemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 of his best troops to himself. With these he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vast loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, to convince him of his error

in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London as a traitor; but he died himself, as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he assumed the crown; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Western Isles, and parts of Scotland, where his toils and sufferings were as inexpressible, as the courage with which he and a few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II. who raised an army more numerous and better appointed still than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men, though this has been supposed to be an exaggerated computation; however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce; who had chosen with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannock-burn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned to be the best knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolph earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories that is recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in person against Bruce himself. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will; there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors lost 4000. The flower of the English nobility were either killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, which was immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himself with a few followers, favoured by the goodness of their horses, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314*.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of the most glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil liberty, and so unfettered

* That the Scots of those days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muses, may be seen from a scolding ballad, made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows:
 Maidens of England fore may ye mourn,
 For your lemmons you have lost at Bannockburn.
 What ho! ween'd the king of England,
 So soon to have won all Scotland.
 With heve a low!
 With a rumby low!

were they by religious considerations, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the same by Robert, if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but, by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indisputably the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predecessors upon the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ransom; and died in peace, without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II. a wife and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to send his second son to France; but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and after suffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of these designs cost him his life, he being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects,

so that they greatly increased in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. He died on the 14th December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards on motives of state policy beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland: James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and his English subjects to take up arms against him: and indeed, it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army; they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody, but unsuccessful attempts, to restore his son, Charles II.

The state of parties in England, at the accession of queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs once more had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would listen to the proposal; but at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event, the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

E N G L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 380	} between	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth 300		2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

CLIMATE AND } THE longest day in the northern parts, contains 17 hours
BOUNDARIES. } 30 minutes; and the shortest in the southern, near 8 hours.
It is bounded on the north, by that part of the island called Scotland; on the east,
by the German Ocean; on the west, by St. George's Channel; and on the south,
by the English Channel, which parts it from France, and contain 49,450 square
miles.

The situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a
great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on part of the sea coasts are
often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of
heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are sub-
ject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in ge-
neral, especially those who live on a dry soil. To this situation likewise we are to
ascribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occasioned by re-
freshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

NAME AND DIVISIONS } Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology
ANCIENT AND MODERN. } of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic
word, signifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its be-
ing derived from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which
furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the
time of the Romans, the whole island went by the name of *Britannia*. The word
Brit, according to Mr. Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants
being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree
in this etymology. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from
the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called *Wales*, or the *land of Strangers*, be-
cause inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and
were strangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England they divided it into,

1. *Britannia Prima*, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom.
2. *Britannia Secunda*, containing the western parts, comprehending *Wales*; and,
3. *Maxima Caesariensis*, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the
wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of
Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To these divisions some add the *Flavia Caesariensis*, which they suppose to con-
tain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 450, and when they were
established in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the
manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the
most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political
republic, consisting of seven kingdoms. But in time of war, a chief was chosen out
of the seven kings; for which reason I call it a political republic, its constitution
greatly resembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually stiled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent — —	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suffex — — Surry — —	Chichester Southwark.
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk — — Suffolk — — Cambridge — — With the Isle of Ely — — Cornwall — — Devon — —	Norwich Bury St. Edmund's Cambridge Ely. Launceston Exeter
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Dorset — — Somerset — — Wilts — — Hants — — Berks — — Lancaster — — York — — Durham — — Cumberland — — Westmoreland — — Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh — —	Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Abingdon. Lancaster York Durham Carlisle Appleby Newcastle.
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Essex — — Middlesex, and part of Hertford — — The other part of Hertford — —	London. Hertford Gloucester
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Gloucester — — Hereford — — Worcester — — Warwick — — Leicester — — Rutland — — Northampton — — Lincoln — — Huntingdon — — Bedford — — Buckingham — — Oxford — — Stafford — — Derby — — Salop — — Nottingham — — Chester — —	Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Oakham Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Aylebury Oxford Stafford Derby Shrewsbury Nottingham Chester.

I have been the more solicitous to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to

this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are:

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex —	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford.	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's-Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemelsted, and Barnet.
	Kent —	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford
	Surry —	Faversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesham, and Milton.
	Suffex —	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalming, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.
		Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East-Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchester, Basset, Brighthelmston, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford —	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wimbich.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leiston, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stow-market, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
	Norfolk —	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Oxon —	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-norton, Henly, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Tame.
	Berks —	Abingdon, Windsor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Gloucester	Gloucester, Tewksbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Campden, Stow, Berkeley, Dursley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.
	Worcester	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Monmouth.	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Ross.
	Salop —	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whitechurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford —	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceter, Nuncaton, and Atherton.
4. Midland Circuit.	Leicester	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.
	Derby —	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balfover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Redford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worktop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln —	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainfborough, Louth, and Horncastle.
	Rutland —	Oakham and Uppingham.
5. Western Circuit.	Northampt.	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcaster, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
	Hants —	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsey, Arlesford; and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.
	Wilts —	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Towbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset —	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerset —	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourne-Port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croscombe, and Froome.
	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totnefs, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
5. Western Circuit. continued.	Cornwall —	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leskard, Lestwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.
	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareborough, Barnesley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heyden, Howden, Thirsk, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
6. Northern Circuit*.	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumb.	Newcastle, Tinnmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkhead, and Newton.
	Westmorl.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglas, Egremont, Kewick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire is left out of these circuits, because, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middlesex	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester —	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knottford, Frodsham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgom.	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-West Circuit.	Anglesey	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.

* In the Lent or Spring Assizes, the Northern Circuit extends only to York and Lancaster: the assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle being held only in the Autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

South-East Circuit.	Radnor, —	{	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon —		Brecknock, Builit, and Hay.
	Glamorgan —	{	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke —		St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan —	{	Cardigan, Aberystwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarth. —		Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanidmover, Llandilobawr, Langham, and Lanelthy.

In E N G L A N D.

40 Counties, which send up to parliament	—	80 knights.
25 Cities (Ely none, London four)	—	50 citizens.
167 Boroughs, two each	—	334 burgeses.
5 Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrars, and Monmouth), one each	—	5 burgeses.
2 Universities	—	4 representatives.
8 Cinque ports Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford), two each	—	16 barons.

W A L E S.

12 Counties	—	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each	—	12 burgeses.

S C O T L A N D.

33 Shires	—	30 knights.
67 Cities and Boroughs	—	15 burgeses.

Total 558

Besides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the north side of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained; for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgeses to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and some not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they still send burgeses to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at present hath, a bishop, for if the bishopric be dissolved, yet the city remains. To have suburbs proves it to be a city. Some cities are also counties, as before-mentioned.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The soil of England and Wales differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world if we except China. If no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn, not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large sums of ready money for her exports. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to such perfection, that the rarest of foreign fruits have been cultivated here with success. If any farther proof of this should be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully supplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within 12 miles distance.

The soil of England seems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houses of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peasants, are delightful and astonishing at the same time.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already said concerning the climate*. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unsalubrious. It cannot however, be denied, that in England the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoary frost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day, cold, temperate, hot and mild weather. The inconstancy of the seasons, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer. Even the greatest irregularity, and the most unfavourable appearances of the seasons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom with scarcity.

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of King Charles the Second upon this subject, which is corroborated by that of Sir William Temple: and it may be observed, that they were both travellers. 'I must needs add one thing' (says Sir William, in his *Miscellanea*, part ii. p. 114. edit. 8vo. 1690.) in favour of our climate, 'which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and esteemed his own country. It was in reply to some company that were reviling our climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain, or at least of France. He said, "He thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble or inconvenience, the most days in the year, and the most hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more than in any country he knew in Europe." And I believe' (adds Sir William) it is true, not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in France and the Low Countries themselves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of seasons are less treatable (or moderate) than they are with us.'

In speaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common conveniencies of life, and those that have mineral qualities. The champain parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains; though a discerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health; so that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY } The industry of the English is such, as to supply
AND MOUNTAINS. } the absence of those favours which nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates, and in many respects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The most barren spots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasanter counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire. &c. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames, the noblest perhaps in the world, rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester, and after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London bridge: but for a more particular description the reader must consult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London and Kingston being the only two it had, from the Nore to the last mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in some measure owing to the dearth of materials for building stone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot parallel for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those lately erected at Westminster and Black Friars.

The river Medway which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; and discharges itself into the Bristol-channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ships which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-line, divides that county into two parts; and

being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouse (a Gaelic word signifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tinnmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from east to west through Lancashire, and passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey, which runs from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from history and antiquity, and indeed, in some places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramfay mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Westmoreland, and some small lakes in Lancashire go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for the benefit of hunting, and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves: so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the forest-laws; and justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phenicians, the latter especially, some ages before that of the Christian Æra; and since the English have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till above 70 years ago; Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of *apis calaminaris* for making brass. Those tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners are said to amount to 100,000. Some mines of copper have lately been discovered in Wales, which are of considerable extent, yield great profit, and have much reduced the price of that metal. Some gold has likewise been discovered in

Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield allum and salt pits. The English fullers earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } This is so copious a subject, and such improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, even since the best printed accounts we have had of both, that much must be left to the reader's own observation and experience. I have already touched upon the corn trade of England; but nothing can be said with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members are so public-spirited as to print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments, which serve to shew that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher state of perfection than they are in at present. Honey and saffron are natives of England. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention those improvements, did we not observe that the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating grasses for the soil.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I shall begin with the quadrupeds. The English oxen are large and fat, but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and the Welch cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are the best of any in the world, whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the success has been answerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry, render them superior to all others in war: and an English hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or stag-chase. Those which draw equipages on the streets of London, are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horses has of late become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. I have been credibly informed, that in some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs, and that in Lincolnshire particularly, it is no uncommon

mon thing for one of those animals to sell for 30*l*. It must, however, be owned, that those large fat sheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which, at a medium of 2*s*. a fleece, makes 1,200,000*l*.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world, but either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates.

What I have observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the English game cocks, which afford much barbarous diversion to our sportsmen.

Tame fowls are pretty much the same in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets, &c. The wild sort are bustards, wild geese, wild ducks, and a great variety of small birds; canary birds also breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, &c. The sea-fish are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, &c. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and scallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscles, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English seas. After all, the English have been, perhaps, with great justice, accused of not paying proper attention to their fisheries, which are confined to a few inconsiderable towns in the west of England. The best fish that comes to the tables of the great in London, are sold by the Dutch to English boats, and that industrious people even take them upon the English coasts. Great exertions, it is true, have been made within these forty years past, to promote this important concern. They were, however, unaccountably disappointed, though it is hard to say from what cause, unless it was, that the price of English labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to the market upon the same terms as the Dutch.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The exemption of the English constitution from the despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occasionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably soon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who settle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the islands, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in shipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain before the last, annually employed about 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scotch and Irish, by sea and land; and its progress carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed sensibly felt, but not so much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service.

No. VIII.

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At the same time, I am not of opinion, that England is at present naturally more populous than she was in the reign of Charles I. though she is accidentally so. The English of former ages, were strangers to the excessive use of spirituous liquors, and other modes of living that are destructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vast quantities of cultivated lands in England, since those times, it might reasonably be presumed, would be favourable to mankind: but this advantage is probably more than counterbalanced by the prevailing practice of engrossing farms, which is unfavourable to population; and independent of this, upon an average, perhaps, a married couple has not such a numerous progeny now as formerly.

After what has been premised, it would be presumptuous to pretend to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales; but in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than seven millions. But as to political calculations, the fallibility of these appears in a very striking light in those of the population of London, because it is impossible to fix it upon any of the known rules or proportions of births and burials. Calculators have been not only mistaken in applying those rules to London, and, as they are called, the bills of mortality, but even in topical matters, because about 100,000 inhabitants, at the very gates of London, do not lie within the bills of mortality.

Englishmen, in their persons are generally well sized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be presumed, that the vast numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women, in their shape, features, and complexion, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beside the external graces so peculiar to the women in England, they are still more to be valued for their thorough cleanliness, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

Of all the people in the world, the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; inasmuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the small pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease by its true name, in any polite company. "This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities, which so strongly characterize the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution, or constancy of mind. A groundless paragraph in a news-paper, has been known to affect the stocks, and consequently public credit, to a considerable degree; and their credulity goes so far, that England may be termed the paradise of quacks and empirics, in all arts and professions. In short, many of the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil in mind, body, and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of clubs and convivial associations; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national."

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry of great fortunes, now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they

cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition perhaps of a despicable pedant, or family dependant; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen, as do not strike into those high walks of life, affect rather what we call a snug, than a splendid way of living. They study and understand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates, and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has, however, been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and conveniency may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours and fatigues, which are incredible. A good economist with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from business; that is either to purchase an estate, or to settle his money in the funds. He then commonly resides in a comfortable house in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his style of living is always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

"Few people in the world know better than tradesmen, and men of business in England, how to pay their court to their customers and employers, nay, even by bribes, and sometimes becoming tributary to their servants. Those arts, they consider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too commonly leads them into a contrary extreme, even that of thinking themselves under no obligation from the rules of decency, duty, and subordination. This carries them to that petulance, which is so offensive to strangers, and though encouraged through the want of education, has its root in the noblest of principles, badly understood, I mean that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property."

Notwithstanding such noble provisions, which would banish poverty from any other country, the streets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of distress, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice severely punishable. This is partly owing to the manner in which the common people live, who consider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The English are dupes in several respects. They attend to projectors, and no scheme is so ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. They listen to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deserved or accidental, and generously contribute to the relief of the parties, sometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever; but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is among the generality of the English of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compensate for the absence of almost every good quality. "This offensive failing, arises partly from the people being so much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the le-

gislature, and for almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions."

The same attention to property operates in many other ways among the lower classes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and disregardful of all about them, nor are the higher orders exempt from the same failing. The same principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the first rank are seen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horse-races, and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of vast property are sometimes not to be distinguished, either by their dress or conversation, even from their servants; and a wager offered to be staked in ready money against a penniless antagonist, has been often thought a decisive argument in public company; but the practice of laying wagers has become much less prevalent than it used to be.

Living learning, and genius, often meet not with suitable regard even from the first rate Englishmen: and it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. We scarcely have an instance, even in the munificent reign of Queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius as such, being made easy in his circumstances. Mr. Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money to assist him in his travels, and Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like pension from Mr. Craggs, the whig secretary of state; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papist. Indeed, a few men of distinguished literary abilities, as well as some without, have of late received pensions from the crown; but from the conduct of some of them it should seem, that state and party services have been expected in return.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable: sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon disgust, and all in the same person. Courage is a quality so congenial to the English nation, that boys, before they can speak, discover a knowledge of the proper guards in boxing; and this native intrepidity is seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the English soldiers an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet screwed on the musquet. The English courage has likewise the property, under able commanders, of being equally passive as active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The English are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible, and, as it were, absorbs all his other ideas.

"All that I have said concerning the English, is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present; for it is not to be dissembled, that every day produces strong evidence of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and above all, the amazing increase of territorial as well as commercial property in the East Indies, introduced a species of people among the English, who have become rich without industry, and by diminishing the value of gold and silver have created a new system of finances in the nation. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately as the accession of the present family to

the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance in dress, and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom."

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, tho' prohibited, are as frequent in England, as the shews of gladiators were in Rome. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich: for the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the English, has been considered in various lights.

DRESS.] In the dress of both sexes, before the present reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majesty. The English, at present, bid fair to be the dictators of dress to the French themselves, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10*l.* in clothing, and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

RELIGION.] We have good authority to say, that about the year 150, a great number of persons professed the Christian faith here, and according to Archbishop Usher in the year 182, there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it seems as if Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants in their several districts. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the Introduction respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I shall only observe in this place, that John Wicliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and it is governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror, into temporal baronies, in right of which, every bishop has a seat and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy, are now freehold; but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The oeconomy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency: but this seems not easy to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support the reforming scheme. The crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; some of them exceeding in value those of bishoprics, for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, is often annexed to a poor bishopric. At present the clergy of the church of England as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their

tithes increases with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the supreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no spiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any ecclesiastical differences, or in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal oeconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, unless by preventing the convocation from sitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this description of the monarchial power over it, is governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the house of peers*. The two archbishops, are those of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the address of 'your grace.' The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. He is enabled to hold ecclesiastical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognisable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege consequently of granting in certain cases, licences and dispensations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

The archbishop of Canterbury has by the constitution and laws of England, such extensive powers, that ever since the death of archbishop Laud (whose character will be hereafter given) the government of England has chiefly thought proper to raise to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

The archbishop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beside

* To the following list, I have subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; for though that sum is far from being the real annual value of the see, yet it assists in forming a comparative estimate between the revenues of each see with those of another.

ARCHBISHOPS.			
Canterbury, —	£ 2682 - 12 - 2	York, —	£ 1610 - 0 - 0
BISHOPS.			
London, —	2000 - 0 - 0	St. Asaph, —	187 - 11 - 8
Durham, —	1821 - 1 - 3	Salisbury, —	1385 - 5 - 0
Winchester, —	3124 - 12 - 8	Bangor, —	131 - 16 - 3
These three bishoprics take precedence of all others in England, and the others according to the seniority of their consecrations.			
Ely, —	2134 - 18 - 6	Norwich, —	834 - 11 - 7
Bath and Wells, —	533 - 1 - 3	Gloucester, —	315 - 7 - 3
Hereford, —	768 - 11 - 0	Lincoln, —	154 - 14 - 2
Rochester, —	358 - 4 - 0	Landaff, —	804 - 18 - 1
Litchfield and Coventry, —	559 - 17 - 3	Bristol, —	294 - 11 - 0
Chester, —	420 - 1 - 8	Carlisle, —	531 - 4 - 9
Worcester, —	929 - 13 - 3	Exeter, —	500 - 0 - 0
Chichester, —	677 - 1 - 3	Peterborough, —	414 - 17 - 8
		Oxford, —	381 - 11 - 0
		St. David's, —	426 - 2 - 1

his own diocese, the bishoprics of Durham, Carlisle, Chester, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The bishops are addressed by the appellation of Your Lordships, styled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers, and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Durham, Salisbury, Ely and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the rank of noblemen. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of confirmation. Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant administration of goods to such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods when no one will administer; to collate to benefices; to grant institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

The ecclesiastical government of England is, properly speaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national representative or synod, and answers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the same time with every parliament, and their business is to consider of the state of the church, and to call those to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconsistent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raised the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconsistent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; so that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of dissolving them, and ever since they have not been permitted to sit for any time, in which they could do business.

"The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, must be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and administrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars." The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commissioners delegated or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and in England, no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were indeed lately in force against those protestant dissenters who did not assent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but these laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to dissenting ministers, and school-masters, without their subscribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that episcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the restoration of his son, has ever since prevailed in England. The wisdom of acknowledging the king the

head of the church, is conspicuous in discouraging all religious persecution and intolerance, and if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed; I mean a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or liberty. The *puritans*, (so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners) were worthy pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern presbyterians who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any respect to doctrine; and in this sense almost all the *dissenters* in England are now become *independents*. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities, and some of their writings are held in high estimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist-ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly generally considered as too sacred to be opposed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worship have been established in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and several clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and assigned their disbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *methodists* are a sect of a late institution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to describe the tenets of this numerous sect. Mr. Whitfield died a few years since; but the places of worship erected by him near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles, and they profess a great respect for his memory. Mr. Wesley and his followers oppose some of the Calvinistic doctrines, particularly that of predestination; but they appear still to retain some of them. He has lately erected a very large place of public worship near Moorfields, and has under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers.

The *quakers* form a numerous sect of dissenters in England. They disclaim all religious creeds made use of by other Christians, and all the modes of worship practised in other churches. They disregard the authority of the clergy, and refuse to pay tithes, unless they are compelled by law. They neither use baptism, nor partake of the Lord's Supper. They affect a peculiar plainness of dress, both as to the form and the colours of their clothes; and they publicly declaim against resistance, and the legality of going to war on any account. Nothing however is more certain, than that the quakers are most excellent members of the community. The strictness of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles, and the simplicity of their living for the singularity of their opinions. The good sense for which this sect is remarkable, renders their leaders more respectable, than those which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildness of their behaviour, sobriety, and great industry, have raised them high in the esteem of the legislature, which has even indulged them by admitting of their affirmation, instead of an oath in civil causes, in the courts of justice.

Many families in England still profess the Roman catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Some of the penal laws against them have lately been repealed, much to the satisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry.

LANGUAGE.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To describe it abstractedly, would be superfluous to an English reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. "It is however subject to some considerable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also commonly either speak, or understand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spanish: but it has been observed, that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the few English who speak Latin, which is perhaps the reason why that language is much diffused in England, even by the learned professions."

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the seat of learning and the Muses. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe; nor has there since his time been wanting a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies.

The English institutions, for the benefit of study, partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its professors; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions of the first consequence in the literary world, and which were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, who was himself a moving library, was the first who published a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons, who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha the queen of Edward the Confessor, and other Saxon princes, some of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muses.

In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable if I should omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the British sea, optics, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses, and to this work I must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of litera-

ture*; and it is but doing justice to the memory of cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of classical learning in England. "As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, did a great deal for the encouragement of these foreigners, and shewed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England, during the bloody, intolerant reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth her sister was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and state; but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments to have been only secondary to their civil. In this she shewed herself a great politician, but she would have been a more amiable queen, had she raised genius from obscurity; for though she was no stranger to Spenser's Muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon by a tasteless minister, that the poet languished to death in obscurity. Though she loved the beauties of the divine Shakespeare, yet we know not that they were distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favourite the earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius."

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England, continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had a considerable effect upon his subjects; for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. Nor must it be forgotten, that the second Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden, and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are to this day standards in those studies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son Charles I. had a taste for the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists; so that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a second Athens; and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties, were stupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of 400,000*l.* sterling upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immense acquisitions he made of antiquities, especially his famous marble inscriptions, he may stand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greatest of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little or no relish for poetry; but such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100*l.* per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to this day.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to

* See the *Biographia Britannica*.

which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies, and though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable *Paradise Lost* by Milton, was published in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not under him boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity, than has ever been known before in architecture*.

That of James II. though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature by those compositions that were published by the English divines in the walk of controversy.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of Queen Anne, and which put her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men, who had flourished in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steel, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficient themselves. George II. was himself no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was considered as being first minister, this screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progress has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very able artists have arisen, and the annual public exhibitions

* Mr. Horace Walpole says, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the universality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatness of Sir Christopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left upon the whole a more perfect edifice than this work of a single mind. The noblest temple, the largest palace, and the most sumptuous hospital in such a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the same hand. He restored London, and recorded its fall. He built above fifty parish churches, and designed the monument.

of painting and sculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

Besides learning, and the fine arts in general, the English excel in what we call the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of. A remarkable instance of which occurs, in the appointments for the last 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrollable judicial seat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few instances that may be alledged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was censured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itself does not say that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his servants. The case of one of his successors is still more favourable to his memory, as his censure reflects disgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordship was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conscience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accused of partiality in the causes that came before him as chancellor.

It must be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, have been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often learned, and always sound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed rather by reasoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among some of the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned. A short time perhaps, may remove this prepossession, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine, that I am insinuating that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution; but I think that if they consulted its powers more than they do, they would preach with more effect. If the semblance of those powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily see, what must not be the consequence if they were exerted in reality, and supported with spirit and learning?

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast, that the several pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech: and I am apt to think, that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Westminster-hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking, not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence as the English senate in its two houses; witness the fine speeches made by both parties in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose.

UNIVERSITIES.] I have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of great numbers of learned men for many ages, and rank amongst the highest literary institutions in Europe. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have ever a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. The university is of great antiquity: it is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden say that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university before the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000, and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants, belonging to the several colleges and halls. Here are four terms every year for public exercises, lectures, and disputations, and set days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures; and in some of the colleges are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

There are libraries belonging to the several colleges; but besides these, there are two other public libraries, the university library, and the Radcliffe library. The university library is usually called the Bodleian library, from Sir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty structure, in the form of a Roman H, and is considered as one of the finest libraries in Europe, from the number and value of its books. The original library has been prodigiously increased, by many large and valuable collections of Greek and Oriental manuscripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a sumptuous pile of building; and was built at the sole expence of that eminent physician, Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed forty thousand pounds for this purpose. The theatre at Oxford is also a very magnificent structure, which was erected by Sir Christopher Wren, at the expence of Archbishop Sheldon. In this edifice are held the public acts of the university: and when the theatre is properly filled, the vice-chancellor being seated in the centre of the semi-circular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left-hand, the professors and curators in their robes, the masters of arts, bachelors, and under-graduates, in their respective habits and places, together with strangers of both sexes, it makes a most august appearance.

The whole number of fellows in the University of Cambridge are four hundred; and six hundred and sixty-six scholars, with about two hundred and thirty-six officers and servants of various kinds who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university; there are also two sorts of students called pensioners, the greater and the less; the greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners.

because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows; the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expence. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called fizar, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained: but the number of pensioners and fizar cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate-house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a very magnificent structure, and in Corpus Christi college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, and Anglo-Norman; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: The upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with the chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transomes, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, and other parts of England, as well as Scotland, and the isles.

The Roman antiquities in England, consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Worcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermenstreet, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermenstreet. There would, however, be no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our present highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Sussex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe, that they were the constant habitations of the Ro-

man soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the vast tessellated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date; and it is difficult for the most expert architect to pronounce that some halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinnmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts, and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the south. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly discernible; and the latter serves as a foundation for a modern work of the same kind, carried on at the public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England is among the desiderata of history; but perhaps it is too great a design for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without visiting every place, and every object in person.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden, and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it be not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Normanic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon characters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments, which I chuse to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman origin, yet the expence was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. Yorkminster, and Westminster hall and abbey, are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or less in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's. In short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that I can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of describing the several medicinal waters and springs which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analysed with great accuracy and care by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests

or inclinations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their salubrious qualities. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing, and those for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Aſton and Iſlington in Middleſex. There alſo are many remarkable ſprings, whereof ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſterſhire; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire; and a dropping well in the weſt-riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bone-well, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often clear out. At Ancliſſ, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits ſo fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place: this is a chafin in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Caſtleton, which is from its hideouſneſs named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſeem in a great meaſure to ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured ſtones.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } This head is so very extensive, that I can only touch upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London †, the metropolis of the British empire, naturally takes the lead in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones, and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of a very surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was: the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed: and from hence arises that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships, for the use of the merchants, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the most vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to

† London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west, is generally allowed to be above seven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in some places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or according to a modern measurement, the extent of continued buildings, is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 roods. But it is much easier to form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, besides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, here are 102 parish churches, and 69 chapels of the established religion; 21 French protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings, 34 presbyterian meetings; 20 baptist meetings; 19 Roman Catholic chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and 3 Jews synagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes usually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodist tabernacles.

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses, about 20 hospitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public prisons, 15 flesh markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public squares, besides those within single buildings as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for public companies, 8 public schools, called free-schools; and 131 charity-schools which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houses, 5975 alehouses; 1000 hackney coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions*.

Black cattle	—	—	—	—	98,244
Sheep and Lambs	—	—	—	—	711,123
Calves	—	—	—	—	194,760
Swine	—	—	—	—	186,932
Pigs	—	—	—	—	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable					
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	—	—	—	—	14,740,000
Oysters, bushels	—	—	—	—	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above those brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and salt-fish	—	—	—	—	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	—	—	—	—	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	—	—	—	—	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	—	—	—	—	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	—	—	—	—	1,172,494

* Neither of the ancient and famous cities of Nineveh, Babylon, and Rome, had ever shipping or trade sufficient to employ so many hands, nor were capable of furnishing provisions, firing, or other necessaries for their support.

Barrels of small beer	—	—	—	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	—	—	—	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled waters, above	—	—	—	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	—	—	—	11,000,000

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in course of time gave rise to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at present 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine balustrade of stone with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in stone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by the Parliament.

Black-friars-bridge falls nothing short of that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many persons even prefer it to Westminster-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it; this is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen

Height of St. Paul's
to the top of the
cupola 340 feet

11042
121

Anne, 4000*l.* a year out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for such erections. Few churches in or about London are without some beauty. The simplicity of the portico in Green Garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting-house at Whitehall, is but a very small part of a noble palace designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence, and as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry, and ornaments are in the highest stile and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported with pillars, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here are held the coronation feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above stairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is justly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a stair-case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically represented in bas-relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation*, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription, shewing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000*l.*

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is said to have cost above 80,000*l.*

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the finest prospects in the world.

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Christ, 1666, Sept. 2. eastward from hence, at the distance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It consumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houses, and 400 streets. Of the 26 wards it utterly destroyed 15, and left eight others shattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 426 acres; from the Tower by the Thames side to the Temple church; and from the north-east along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciless, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden; for in a small space of time the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human councils and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it stopped, as it were by a command from heaven; and was on every side extinguished."

We might here give a description of the Tower †, Bank of England, the new treasury, the admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-

† In examining the curiosities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with those on the outside the principal gate; the first thing a stranger usually goes to visit is the wild beasts; which, from their situation, first present themselves: for having entered the outer gate, and passed what is called the spur guard, the keeper's house presents itself before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying six pence each person, you may easily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate you see the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated almost in the centre, no one side answering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of these towers is now converted into an observatory. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small armoury for the sea-service, it having various sorts of arms, very curiously laid up, for above 10,000 seamen. In the other room are many closets and presses, all filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms; the other with arms and other warlike instruments, as spades, shovels, pickaxes, and chevaux de frize. In the upper story, are kept some records, containing perhaps the ancient usages and customs of the place. In this building are also preserved the models of the new-invented engines of destruction, that have from time to time been presented to the government. Near the south-west angle of the White-Tower, is the Spanish armoury, in which are deposited the spoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate, to latest posterity, the memory of that signal victory, obtained by the English over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You are now come to the grand store-house, a noble building to the northward of the White-Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by king James II. who built it to the first floor; but it was finished by king William III. who erected that magnificent room, called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with queen Mary, his consort, dined in great form, having all the warrant workmen and labourers to attend them, dressed in white gloves and aprons, the usual badges of the order of masonry. To this noble room you are led by a folding door, adjoining to the east end of the Tower chapel, which leads to a grand staircase of 50 easy steps. On the left side of the uppermost landing-place is the workshop, in which are constantly employed about 14 furbiters, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you see what they call a wilderness of arms, so artfully disposed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for service; a sight which it is impossible to behold without astonishment; and beside those exposed to view, there were, before the late war, 16 chests shut up, each chest holding about 1,000 muskets. The arms were originally disposed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gunsmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a pension from the crown for his ingenuity.

Upon the ground floor, under the small armoury, is a large room of equal dimensions with that, supported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a passage in the middle 16 feet wide. At the sight of such a variety of the most dreadful engines of destruction, before whose thunder the most stupendous monuments, the noblest works of art, and numbers of the human species fall together in one common and unobscured ruin; one cannot help wishing that those horrible inventions had still lain, like a first conception, in the womb of nature, never to have been ripened into birth.

The horse armoury is a plain brick-building, a little to the eastward of the White-Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the spectator is entertained with a representation of those kings and heroes of our own nation, with whose gallant actions it is to be supposed he is well acquainted; some of them equipped and sitting on horseback, in the same bright and shining armour they were used to wear when they performed those glorious actions which give them a distinguished place in the British annals.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reversing the order of chronology; so that in following them we must place the last first.

In a dark, strong stone-room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new-armoury, the crown jewels are deposited. 1. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned since Edward the Confessor, in 1040. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are however mistaken in shewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St. Edward; for that, with the other most ancient regalia of

house of the lord-mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, and a vast number of other public buildings; beside the magnificent edifices raised by our

this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloisters in Westminster-Abbey, till the civil war; when, in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron chest in which it was secured, took it thence, and sold it, together with the robes, sword, and sceptre, of St. Edward. However, after the Restoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now shewn. II. The golden orb or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left hand with the sceptre in his right, upon his return into Westminster-Hall after he is crowned. It is about six inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious stones. On the top is an amethyst, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, set with a rich cross of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious stones. The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden sceptre, with its cross set upon a large amethyst of great value, garnished round with table diamonds. The handle of the sceptre is plain; but the pommel is set round with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds. The top rises into a *fleur de lis* of six leaves, all enriched with precious stones, from whence issues a mound or ball, made of the amethyst already mentioned. The cross is quite covered with precious stones. IV. The sceptre with the dove, the emblem of peace perched on the top of a small Jerusalem cross, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was first used by Edward the Confessor, as appears by his seal; but the ancient sceptre and dove was sold with the rest of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the Restoration. V. St. Edward's staff, four feet seven inches and an half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of state, worn by his majesty in parliament; in which is a large emerald seven inches round; a pearl esteemed the finest in the world, and a ruby of inestimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highness the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he sits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to shew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and sceptre, with the diadem she wore at her coronation with her consort king William III. IX. An ivory sceptre with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whose garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or sword of mercy, which has a blade of thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice, spiritual and temporal. XI. The golden spurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wrists. These, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden spoon that the bishop pours the oil into. These are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedestal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about seven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle screws off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the bishop, the oil is poured into the spoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich saltcellar of state, in form like the square White Tower, and so exquisitely wrought, that the workmanship of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and used only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble silver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are christened. XV. A large silver fountain, presented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiously wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Besides these, which are commonly shewn, there are in the jewel office, all the crown jewels worn by the princes and princesses at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The record office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. These are all handsomely wainscotted, the wainscot being framed into presses round each room, within which are shelves, and repositories for the records; and for the easier finding of them, the year of each reign is inscribed on the inside of these presses, and the records placed accordingly. Within these presses, which amount to 56 in number, are deposited all the rolls, from the first year of the reign of king John, to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but those after this last period are kept in the Rolls Chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain the foundation of abbeys, and other religious houses; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the original of laws and statutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the achievements of England in foreign wars; the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the forms of submersion of some Scottish kings, for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their subjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the Conquest; the bounds of all the forests in England, with the several respective rights of the inhabitants to common pasture, and many other important records, all regularly disposed, and referred to in near a thousand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance constantly given, from seven o'clock till one,

nobility; as lord Spencer's house, Marlborough-house, and Buckingham-house in St. James's park; the earl of Chesterfield's house near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkeley-Square; Northumberland-house in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-house*, in Bloomsbury; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is small, and the recovery in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these officers, keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants of that time, was productive of consequences, which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means answered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan

except in the months of December, January and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A search here is half a guinea, for which you may peruse any one subject a year.

* The British Museum is deposited in Montague house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum; for its being established by parliament, was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000*l.* to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000*l.* to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agates, jasper, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystal, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Talcs, mica, &c. 388. Corals, sponges, &c. 1,421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Asteriei trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and nests, of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,008. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

of the great Sir Christopher Wren, was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property. Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been asserted, must have been the result; the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestably have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the universe.

The plan of London, in its present state, will in many instances appear to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can easily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the streets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are also circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewise thrust up in corners in such a manner, as might tempt foreigners to believe, that they were designed to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for some years past, have however been very great; and the new streets, which are numerous, are in general more spacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the noblest river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houses, known by the names of Durham-Yard, the Savoy, and Somerset House. The first, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of scenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the site of Durham-yard was raised upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi stands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuisance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, stood Somerset-House, where, being the property of government also, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the use of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Amongst the list of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six Clerks Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very substantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanliness, and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid sounds issuing from the lips of those wretched beings, who set defiance to all laws divine and human; and here also the offender, whose crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Windfor castle is the only fabric that deserves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation; which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite residence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and, like Windfor, lies near the Thames. Both these palaces have some good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for design and expression are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-house, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens.

Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal*.

Next to these, if not superior, in magnificence and expensive decorations, are many private seats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom, wherein the amazing opulence of the English nation shines forth in its fullest point of view. Herein also the princely fortunes of the nobility are made subservient to the finest classical taste; witness the seats of the Marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the seat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of any other subject in the world.

But those capital houses of the English nobility and gentry have an excellency distinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being suitable to each other, both in construction and furniture, and all kept in the highest preservation. It often happens, that the house, however elegant and costly, is not the principal object of the seat, which consists in its hortulane and rural decorations. Vistas, opening landscapes, temples, all of them the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I should here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work: I shall, therefore, only touch upon some of the most considerable.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in the British dominions for trade, wealth, and the number of inhabitants. It stands upon the north and south sides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone-bridge. The city is not well built; but is supposed to contain 15,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen parish-churches, besides seven or eight other places of worship. On the north side of a large square, called Queen's square, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equestrian statue of William the Third, there is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, said to be one of the most commodious in England, for shipping and landing of merchants goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is all of free stone, and is one of the best of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse; it is very populous, and surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five posterns. Here are seventeen parish-churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minster, it being one of the finest Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largest of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch, which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted; and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat Gothic chapter-house. Near the cathedral is the assembly house, which is a noble structure, and which was designed by the late earl of Burlington. This city has a stone bridge of five arches over the river Ouse.

* The situations that have been deemed the most eligible for a town and country residence, are Hyde Park, and Richmond Park near Peterham. A palace in the last mentioned place, if executed upon a liberal plan, would at once astonish the beholder with all that is great and noble in nature and art.

The city of Exeter was for some time the seat of the West-Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time enclose it, were built by king Athelstan, who encompassed it also with a ditch. It is one of the first cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of its inhabitants. It has six gates, and, including its suburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are sixteen parish churches, besides chapels, and five large meeting-houses, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter in serges, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Shirts come up to the city by means of sluices.

The city of Gloucester stands on a pleasant hill, with houses on every descent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one side, a branch of which brings ships up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent structure, and there are also five parish-churches.

Litchfield stands in a valley, three miles south of the Trent, and is divided by a stream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was so completely repaired soon after the Restoration, that it is now one of the noblest Gothic structures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the most considerable city in the north-west of England, except Chester.

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the sea. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches. The streets are generally even and spacious, and crossing one another in straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were first erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the south side of the city to the castle, from whence there is a pleasant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by some of the towers over the gates; and from hence there is a prospect of Flintshire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It stands upon a rock of free-stone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the streets are spacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has an handsome town-house, and twelve noble gates. Here is also a spacious market place, with a cross in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with statues of several kings of England, as large as the life.

Salisbury, is a large, neat, and well-built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lanthorn, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. This church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The

seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: the spring season begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring, this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two-thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been no less than 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, and the Circus.

No nation in the world can shew such dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth (the most regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the best dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is copious, and has been well discussed in former publications, many of which are master-pieces in their kind. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most powerful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient then to say, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East-India company owes to him their success and existence, and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increased. It is not within our design to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and states. This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work requires only a representation of the present state of commerce in every country; and, in this light, I flatter myself that I shall be able to treat of it with more precision than former writers upon the same subject.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states, and made all the Roman Catholick powers our enemies.

We began in the same reign to extend our trade, by which it became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to accommodate and obstruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewise settled colonies in America, which was become the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and silver.

The discoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced in a few years, a great multiplication of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of sovereignty arose, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the consent of

other princes was not asked, had divided the newly discovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the ships of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raised at a vast expence for the conquest of England, was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppressed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters; they therefore revolted; and after a struggle, in which they were assisted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to form schemes of future prosperity, they easily perceived that as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power, which is the consequence of wealth; and that by a people whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by transportation of the products of one country into another.

From this necessity, thus justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success perhaps never seen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state, there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, which seems to be the period destined for the change of the face of Europe, France began first to rise into power, and, from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating success, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devastations. Henry IV. having, after a long struggle, obtained the crown, found it easy to govern nobles, exhausted and wearied by a long civil war; and having composed the disputes, between the Protestants and Roman Catholics, so as to obtain, at least, a truce for both parties, was at leisure to accumulate treasure, and raise forces, which he proposed to have employed in a design of settling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great scheme he lived not to see the vanity, or feel the disappointment; for he was murdered in the midst of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great designs of a king, whose wisdom they had so long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual execution, disposed them to consider themselves as masters of the destiny of their neighbours; and from that time he who shall nicely examine their schemes and conduct, will find that they began to take an air of superiority to which they had never pretended before; and that they have been always employed more or less openly in schemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domestic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a year; at the Restoration they were let to farm for 400,000*l.* and produced considerably above double that sum before the revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconsiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increased to 150,000, and are now above six times that number. In those days, we had not only naval stores, but ships from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all

things made of metals, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thousand other things came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugars; all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain, and the Venetian and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. In short, the legal interest of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land 10 or 12 years purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small, and our shipping much inferior to what lately belonged only to the American colonies.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the most proper for trade; as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellency of its constitution, and from its natural products, and considerable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the most substantial and necessary commodities; as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, saffron, &c. Our corn sometimes preserves other countries from starving. Our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biscuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign vessels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcasses, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almost incredible, is the value likewise of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household-stuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, salmon, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is scarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unnecessary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great esteem. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective. In those of lace and paper we do not seem to excel, though they are greatly advancing; we import much more than we should, if the duties on British paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is still the great foundation and support of it.

The American colonies are the object which would naturally have first presented themselves, before the unhappy contest between them and the mother-country commenced; but as a separation hath taken place, and no commercial treaty as yet established, little can be now said of the trade between great Britain and America. However, to keep in remembrance what our trade was, as well as to shew what it might have been, had wiser men presided at the helm, and avoided the contest, I shall treat of the colonies in this place, nearly in the same manner as would have been done before the war broke out. And considering them in this view, they may be divided into two classes; possessions on the continent, and those in the islands which go under the name of the West Indies.

I shall rank the possessions in North-America, under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudson's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, Nova-Scotia, New-England, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, and New-Hampshire (the three last forming one colony), New-York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, East and West Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great Britain to those colonies, were wrought iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead and brass, cordage, hemp, sail-cloth, ship-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hosiery, haberdashery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, fluffs, flannels, Colchester bays, long ell silks, gold and silver lace, Manchester goods, British, foreign and Irish linens,

earthen wares, grind-stones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, sadlery, cabinet-ware, seeds, cheese, strong beer, smoking pipes, snuffs, wines, spirits, and drugs; East India goods, books, paper, leather, besides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impossible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, were tobacco, rice, flour, biscuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; salt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, venison, tongues, butter and cheese; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fish, and fish oil; furs and skins of wild beasts; such as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horses, and live stock; timber planks, masts, boards, staves, shingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ships built for sale; flax, flax-seed, and cotton; indigo, pot-ash, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; besides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and soil of different provinces. The following is a state of the trade between Great Britain and the colonies, as it existed before the differences broke out between them, marking at the same time the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.
Hudson's Bay —	4	130	Pennsylvania —	35	390
Labrador, American vessels 120			Virginia and Maryland —	330	3,960
Newfoundland (3000 boats) —	380	20,560	North Carolina —	34	408
Canada —	34	408	South Carolina —	140	1,680
Nova Scotia —	6	72	Georgia —	24	240
New England —	46	552	East Florida —	2	24
Rhode Island, Connecticut, and } New Hampshire	36	36	West ditto —	10	120
New York —	30	330			
				1,078	28,910

The principal islands belonging to the English in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas, or Summer Islands, and the Bahama, or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic ocean.

The English trade with their West India islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany, and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves; for these the exports from England are of naburbs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes, laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, snuffs, and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the history of the East India trade, within these twenty years past, and the company's concerns in that country, it is sufficient to say, that, beside their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under certain restrictions by act of parlia-

ment; they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indostan, and the ambition or avarice of their servants and officers, acquired such territorial possessions, as render them the most formidable commercial republic (for so it may be called in its present situation) that has been known in the world since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are chosen by the proprietors of the stock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half sterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great; but after these are defrayed, the company not only cleared a vast sum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thousand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial, and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be said to be independent; and it is hard to say what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years past, the company's servants abroad have enriched and served themselves more than the public.

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, salt-petre for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I shall now proceed to a concise view of the English trade to other countries, according to the latest and most authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England sends in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdgris, spices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000*l.* annually, in favour of England. The English trade was afterwards diminished through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the English.

England exports to Italy, woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods; and brings back raw and thrown silk, wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000*l.*

To Spain, England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron, and brass manufactures; haberdashery wares, assortments of linen from Germany, and elsewhere, for the American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wools, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. Of late, her ministry have changed their system, and have partly fallen in with the views of the house of Bourbon. They have established courts, which are inconsistent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the English merchants of great part of their capitals, which they find it impossible to recover. They have likewise erected two Brazil companies; the one for Marenham and Gran Para, the other for Ferambuco, greatly to the detriment of the English rights, but to their own national advantage. Before these events took place, the English trade to Portugal was highly beneficial. England sent to that country almost the same

kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

The treaty of commerce lately concluded between England and France, has been esteemed so bold a measure, and its future operation so variously represented, that little can be hazarded in conjecture, and very little is yet known from experience.

England sends to Flanders, serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses upon the balance 250,000*l.* sterling yearly. To Germany, England sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandize; and brings thence vast quantities of linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned plates, timbers for all uses, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000*l.* annually, to the prejudice of England, but that sum is now greatly reduced, as most of the German princes find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, which formerly was against England; but the balance was lately vastly diminished by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raising hemp, flax, making pot-ashes, iron-works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are sent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland consumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hard ware, lead, tin, salt, sea coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be estimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of many sorts of merchandize; such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East India, and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is usually supposed to be much in favour of England.

The acquisitions which the English made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich feathers, bees wax, millet, ambergris, and above all, for that useful commodity gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to them by the late treaty of peace. At present, England sends to the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead-shot, swords, knives, fire arms, gun-powder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and brass; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chintz; teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, salt-petre, and many other drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandizes are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who proposes to trade thither, must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-sixth part of the inland: the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland, and the East Indies; and it is supposed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

State of the Trade of England at different periods with the Several Nations of the World.*

(*Extracted from Playfair's Tables.*)

I R E L A N D.			Guernf. Jerf. & Ald.		G E R M A N Y.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	270,000	240,000	30,000	9,000	575,000	995,000
1710	300,000	270,000	25,000	25,000	610,000	895,000
1720	335,000	370,000	20,000	27,000	620,000	1,000,000
1730	340,000	600,000	18,000	45,000	680,000	1,105,000
1740	475,000	760,000	39,000	50,000	700,000	1,155,000
1750	660,000	950,000	55,000	40,000	715,000	1,405,000
1760	870,000	1,450,000	57,000	50,000	705,000	1,615,000
1770	1,230,000	1,870,000	51,000	46,000	680,000	1,820,000
1780	1,470,000	1,890,000	61,000	64,000	670,000	1,240,000
Baltic and the East Country.			Denmark & Norway		S W E D E N.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	136,000	110,000	70,000	35,000	197,000	57,000
1710	130,000	85,000	81,000	59,000	160,000	46,000
1720	188,000	86,000	96,000	76,000	154,000	35,000
1730	198,000	118,000	97,000	65,000	183,000	29,000
1740	230,000	133,000	93,000	67,000	186,000	33,000
1750	250,000	154,000	90,000	79,000	196,000	30,000
1760	210,000	175,000	79,000	115,000	212,000	25,000
1770	220,000	135,000	85,000	163,000	209,000	57,000
1780	280,000	70,000	93,000	185,000	198,000	95,000
R U S S I A.			GREENLAND.		H O L L A N D.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports.
1700	109,000	135,000	—	—	570,000	2,150,000
1710	140,000	100,000	—	—	510,000	2,100,000
1720	195,000	50,000	200	100	590,000	1,920,000
1730	235,000	45,000	2,000	50	510,000	1,840,000
1740	335,000	75,000	2,800	—	420,000	2,200,000
1750	440,000	85,000	10,000	200	370,000	1,930,000
1760	570,000	98,000	16,000	330	400,000	1,810,000
1770	890,000	133,000	22,000	60	480,000	1,780,000
1780	1,185,000	290,000	38,000	70	490,000	1,570,000

* This is the only edition of a Geography heretofore published which contains Tables similar to these.

STATE OF THE TRADE OF ENGLAND CONTINUED.

F L A N D E R S.			F R A N C E.		Portugal & Madeira.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	7,000	80,000	20,000	30,000	250,000	630,000
1710	20,000	150,000	50,000	75,000	275,000	700,000
1720	51,000	245,000	48,000	175,000	350,000	800,000
1730	125,000	270,000	51,000	255,000	365,000	1,070,000
1740	150,000	290,000	57,000	305,000	340,000	1,140,000
1750	70,000	345,000	31,000	285,000	350,000	1,200,000
1760	70,000	420,000	55,000	275,000	300,000	1,110,000
1770	175,000	840,000	80,000	165,000	360,000	680,000
1780	225,000	1,050,000	45,000	155,000	370,000	590,000

S P A I N and the C A N A R I E S.			S T R A I G H T S.		Venice and Italy.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	225,000	220,000	2,000	250,000	22,000	15,500
1710	280,000	320,000	25,000	500,000	32,200	17,500
1720	420,000	565,000	70,000	475,000	46,500	18,000
1730	480,000	650,000	135,000	625,000	52,500	14,500
1740	190,000	450,000	40,000	675,000	50,000	14,300
1750	90,000	400,000	80,000	535,000	56,000	18,500
1760	525,000	1,150,000	60,000	425,000	64,000	50,000
1770	510,000	1,040,000	20,000	90,000	71,000	72,500
1780	440,000	860,000	300	85,000	65,500	1,1000

T U R K E Y.			A F R I C A.		E A S T I N D I E S.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	250,000	170,000	14,000	11,000	440,000	140,000
1710	287,000	195,000	18,000	7,000	595,000	95,000
1720	295,000	220,000	30,000	12,000	880,000	120,000
1730	270,000	185,000	50,000	18,000	965,000	145,000
1740	187,000	155,000	32,000	15,000	970,000	360,000
1750	155,000	100,000	27,000	16,000	930,000	700,000
1760	137,000	83,000	43,000	30,000	1,005,000	880,000
1770	126,000	89,000	53,000	48,000	1,515,000	1,330,000
1780	142,000	109,000	73,000	53,000	1,550,000	840,000

W E S T I N D I E S.			Spanish West Indies.		B E R M U D A.	
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
1700	580,000	305,000	—	—	500	600
1710	750,000	335,000	—	—	600	1,000
1720	1,060,000	435,000	34,000	84,000	1,900	3,000
1730	1,260,000	450,000	37,000	83,000	1,500	2,200
1740	1,290,000	515,000	12,000	11,000	800	1,500
1750	1,460,000	770,000	—	—	1,600	7,200
1760	2,105,000	865,000	13,000	1,000	1,800	10,000
1770	2,995,000	1,190,000	26,000	3,000	1,700	13,000
1780	2,210,000	1,220,000	28,000	7,000	1,700	15,000

STATE OF THE TRADE OF ENGLAND CONTINUED.

All North America.			Uni. Sta. of America.		ALL AMERICA.		
Years	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Years	Imports	Exports
1700	280,000	200,000	238,000	240,000	1770	1,480,000	4,550,000
1710	370,000	250,000	310,000	280,000	1771	1,430,000	4,630,000
1720	520,000	350,000	450,000	410,000	1772	1,445,000	3,600,000
1730	630,000	500,000	590,000	540,000	1773	1,465,000	2,465,000
1740	780,000	620,000	700,000	760,000	1774	1,435,000	3,840,000
1750	820,000	930,000	760,000	1,110,000	1775	2,065,000	985,000
1760	950,000	1,750,000	940,000	1,610,000	1776	245,000	1,190,000
1770	1,480,000	4,550,000	900,000	1,660,000	1777	230,000	1,880,000
1780	300,000	1,805,000	540,000	1,050,000	1778	265,000	1,150,000
					1779	295,000	1,370,000
					1780	300,000	1,805,000
					1781	385,000	1,545,000
					1782	295,000	905,000

TOTAL TRADE WITH ALL THE WORLD.

Years	Imports	Exports	Balance	Years	Imports	Exports	Balance
1700	4,550,000	6,300,000	1,950,000	1771	12,800,000	17,150,000	4,350,000
1710	4,900,000	7,000,000	2,100,000	1772	13,300,000	16,150,000	2,850,000
1720	5,350,000	8,600,000	3,350,000	1773	11,400,000	14,750,000	3,350,000
1730	7,500,000	10,900,000	3,400,000	1774	13,250,000	15,900,000	2,650,000
1740	7,550,000	12,000,000	4,450,000	1775	13,550,000	15,200,000	1,650,000
1750	7,250,000	12,650,000	5,400,000	1776	11,700,000	13,700,000	2,000,000
1760	10,300,000	14,250,000	3,950,000	1777	11,850,000	12,650,000	0,800,000
1770	11,850,000	16,300,000	4,650,000	1778	10,250,000	11,550,000	1,300,000
1780	10,750,000	12,400,000	1,650,000	1779	10,650,000	12,650,000	2,000,000
				1780	10,750,000	12,550,000	1,800,000
				1781	11,900,000	10,550,000	1,350,000
				1782	9,500,000	12,350,000	2,850,000

We shall conclude this account of our trade, with the following comparative view of shipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uses.

If the shipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	—	—	6
The United Provinces	—	—	6
Denmark, Sweden, and Russia	—	—	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Austrian Netherlands	—	—	1
France	—	—	2
Spain and Portugal	—	—	2
Italy, and the rest of Europe.	—	—	1

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where those English manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated: a few general strictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol is said by some to employ 2000 maritime vessels of all sizes, coasters as well as ships employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle, and drinking-glass, one alone occupying fifteen large houses: its brass-wire manufactures are al-



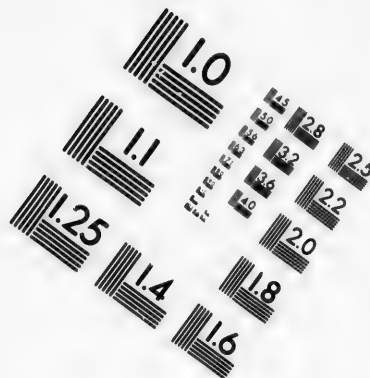
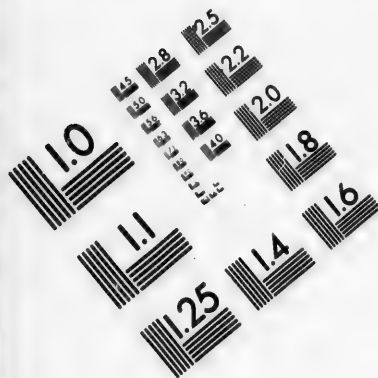
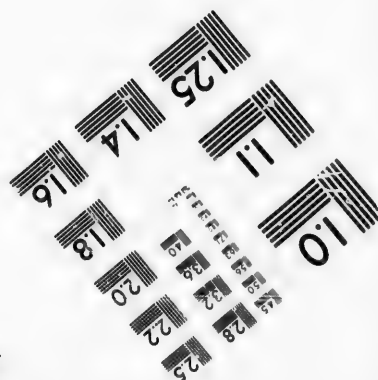
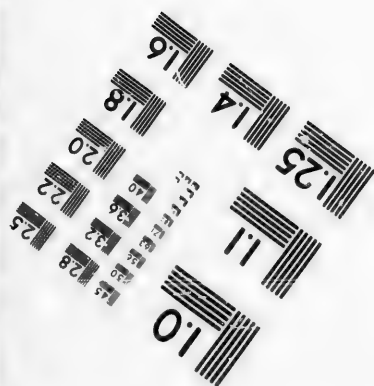
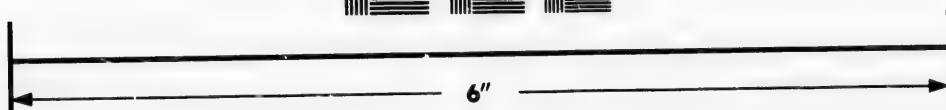
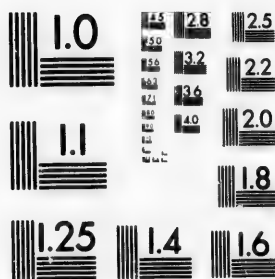
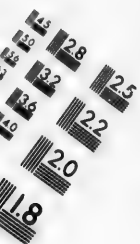


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so very considerable. Vast manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and serges, and also Exeter for serges, and long-ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camelots, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest, and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, etwees, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind: the cheapness of coals, and all necessaries, and the conveniency of situation, no doubt contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Manchester; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. I might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for some particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I must not however dismiss this head, without observing the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and consequently are a vast saving to the nation. Paper which, till very lately, was imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a most necessary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of salt-petre, which was first attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East-India company; the success of such an undertaking would be of immense benefit, as well as security to the nation.

After all that has been said on this head, the seats of manufactures and consequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow those places where living is cheap, and taxes are easy: for this reason, they have been observed of late to remove towards the northern counties, where provisions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations, which are opening in many parts of England, will make vast alterations as to its internal state.

A short View of the Stocks, or public Funds in England, with an historical Account of the East-India, the Bank, and the South-Sea Companies.

In order to give a clear idea of the money transactions of the several companies, it is proper we should say something of money in general, and particularly of paper money, and the difference between that and the current specie. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard to such a degree, as to supply its place,

and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the place of specie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit consists in its always being ready to turn it into specie whenever required. This is exactly the case of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no interest), is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance: since a bank note for a very large sum may be sent by the post, and to prevent the designs of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called Bank post-bills, may be had by application at the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent losses by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the Bank, if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers as common Bank-notes are: and whoever considers the hazard, the expence and trouble there would be in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also consider this as a very singular advantage. Besides which another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars; 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest; while *stocks* are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India bonds* indeed (by some persons, though erroneously, denominated stock) are to be accepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either on the side of the company, or of the possessor.

By the word *Stock* was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the security both of the government and the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person; as the stocks are negotiable and may be sold at any time; and as the interest is always punctually paid when due; so they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower interest than what might be obtained from lending it to private persons, where there is often some danger of losing both principal and interest.

But as every public capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it necessarily follows, that when that fund is completed, no stock can be bought of the company; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a

considerable profit to himself; and on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell at a certain distant time, a certain quantity of some particular stock; against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by spreading rumours, and fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell it, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth a rool. to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000*l.* stock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this case is called the Bull, and the seller the Bear; one is for raising or tossing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the Stock.

Besides these, there is another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination. These are the great monied men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. These indeed are not fictitious, but really buyers and sellers of stock; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the fore-mentioned set of men as their instruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raise or fall the stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company which produces 5*l.* or 6*l.* per cent. per ann. must be more valuable than an annuity with government security, that produces no more than 3*l.* or 4*l.* per cent. per annum; and consequently such stock must sell at a higher price than an annuity. Though it must be observed, that a share in the stock of a trading company producing 5*l.* or 6*l.* per cent. per annum, will not fetch so much money at market as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying so much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the stocks of the East-India, the Bank, and the South-Sea companies, are distinguished by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we shall give a short history of each of them, together with an account of the different stocks each is possessed of, beginning with the East-India company as the first established.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES. Of these the East-India company takes the lead; and we have already given some account of it as being the capital commercial object in England. The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but

Found 1,297

it has since admitted of vast alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50*l.* sterling; and its capital only 369,891*l.* 5*s.* but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the shares were doubled, and, consequently, each became of 100*l.* value, and the capital 739,782*l.* 10*s.* to which capital, if 963,639*l.* the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be found to be 1,703,421*l.* Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by Sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The opposition given to all the public spirited measures of king William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of vast difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vast interest both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in some respects defective, so violent a struggle between the two companies arose, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000*l.* to the public, without any additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies." Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther sum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.* was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 500*l.* formerly had, but now of 1000*l.* whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, six a year, for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200*l.* a year, and each of the directors 150*l.* The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouse, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-suits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, computed to be 181,000 square miles, and containing 30 millions of people, must be necessarily attended with a proportionable increase of trade*; and this, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the last mentioned period it appeared, that, besides to the above dividend, the capital stock of the company had been increased 180,000l. Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of the East India company by an act passed in 1773, intitled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the East-India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years: six members annually; but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no person should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification should, instead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta should for the future be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisition. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges; and that these judges be appointed by the crown. That a superiority be given to the presidency of Bengal, over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed, at 8000l. to the chief justice, and 6000l. a-year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the first at 25000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immense power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto resulted to the company: on the contrary, the new established court of justice has paid so little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the usages of that country, as to occasion the most alarming discontents among the natives, and great dissatisfaction even among the company's own servants.

In the month of November 1783, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the present insolvent state of the company. The bill passed the commons, but it seems by the secret influence of the crown, an opposition was formed against it in the house of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary power of the crown; and after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of 19 peers. The consequence of this, was the downfall of the ministry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill which passed at the close of the sessions, 1784, three things were provided.

* According to lists laid before the house of commons, the Company employed 140 Ships and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe in carrying cargoes to and from, — 70 Ships — and 7130 men.

6 Packets — — 320

In the country trade and from China, — 34 Grabs — 778

First, the establishing a power of control in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the rest of the empire.

Secondly, The regulating the conduct of the company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those persons who shall, nevertheless, continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the country.

Notwithstanding the regulations of this new bill, it is to be suspected that they will produce no very material effect, unless vigorous measures be taken to enforce them. This bill, like former ones, may be deposited among the archives of the councils of the governments in the East Indies to lie in oblivion, or be treated with contempt. Mere parchment chains cannot bind the hands of rapacity and violence. The country is too remote for Britain to interfere on every emergency. The corrupt may be bribed, the timid may be threatened into a desertion of their duty, while the most upright may be overpowered by violence, and, if not silenced in that country, be sent home to this loaded with irons, to plead their cause for pretended crimes charged against them by the emissaries of the powerful delinquents, whose speculations and rapacity they endeavoured to repress, but whose riches will secure them a safe retreat, and a seat in either house of parliament.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade, in any goods or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament passed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted, that Bank stock should be a personal, and not a real estate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or selling bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days, and that it should be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any sealed Bank bill, or any Bank note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes.

By another act, passed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were empowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343*l.* and they then advanced 400,000*l.* more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000*l.*

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the interest of their capital stock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000*l.* and to accept an annuity of 100,000*l.* and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in their capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any member should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it should be lawful for the Bank, not only to stop the dividend of such member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in question; but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with the interest of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid: and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the Bank should then have

power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter as would satisfy the same.

After this, the Bank reduced the interest of the 2,000,000*l.* lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent, and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank reduced to 1,600,000*l.* But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000*l.* at 3 per cent, which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000*l.* the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the sum of 986,800*l.* due to them in the Exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spirituous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442*l.* the interest of that sum at 4 per cent. The company also agreed to advance the farther sum of 1,000,000*l.* into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties arising by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be issued for that purpose; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800*l.* the interest of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the said Exchequer bills, they established what is now called Bank circulation: the nature of which not being well understood, we shall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation, than we have been with regard to the other stocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening that sum they employed in discounting, buying gold and silver &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them), or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which answers their end, was as follows:

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the Bank pays the subscribers 4 per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for such sum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case), receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of 23,500*l.* per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million	}	£. 30,000
The Bank pays to the subscribers who advance 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more		
		6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is		23,500

This is the state of the case, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank stock may not improperly be called a trading stock, since with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and silver, in discounting bills of exchange*, &c. Besides which, they are allowed by the government very considerable sums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a share in their stock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the East-India stock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when those who have occasion for their money, may readily receive it: but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal†.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner as in the East-India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers and servants of this company are very numerous.

SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men at a discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery, &c.

Though this company seem formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain that the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with Negroes: of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest.

* At four per cent. until the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.

† The Bank Company is supposed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper.

By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling the company to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common seal, on the credit of their capital stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit treble the value of the money so lent.

The fatal South-sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success, and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000*l.* stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South-sea bubble was projected. The pretended design of which was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, shewing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100*l.* original stock would yield 50*l.* per annum: which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100*l.* was sold for upwards of 800*l.* This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150*l.* by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned, as is scarcely to be conceived. But the consequences of this infamous scheme are too well known; most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; some of whom had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, they ought to have opposed and prevented it.

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint-stock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called the New South-Sea annuities; and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might

reasonably divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were discharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company should cause to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the same stock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The East-India company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long Exchequer orders.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, so when a person, who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South-Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to understand, that 100l. of those respective stocks sell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment, is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due in them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when, in reality, there is none at all. Thus, for instance, old South-Sea annuities sell for 85½l. or 85l. 10s. while new South-Sea annuities fetch only 84½l. or 84l. 15s. though each of them produce the same annual sum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amount to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes that will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being for that reason, so

many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; because it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

A stock may likewise be affected by the court of Chancery: for if that court should order the money which is under their direction to be laid out in any particular stock, that stock, by having more purchasers, will be raised to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been said, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the interest of the nation depend on the support of the public funds, of which more particulars hereafter, under the article of REVENUES. While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are there regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people (a security not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandise, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the interests of both prince and people, which is the strongest security: for however lovely and engaging honesty may be in other respects, interest in money matters will always obtain confidence; because many people pay great regard to their interest, who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his mistake; for by certain checks that operate mutually, and which did not fall within his ideas, the English constitution has continued in its full vigour for above 500 years. It must, at the same time, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions; but its principles are the same with those described by the above mentioned historian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the same as those mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over, under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and those leaders, at last, assumed the title of kings over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increase their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that master-piece of judicial polity, the subdivision of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tythings, names that still subsist in England; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earliest records, it appears that all civil matters were

decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the original of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal composed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Christianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action so criminal as not to be compensated for by money*. A mulct was imposed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it, he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity; and cases of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though in fact, it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Norman.

In many respects, the first princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown, and after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property.

The precise year when the house of commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers†. We therefore now proceed to describe the CONSTITUTION as it stands at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the singular constitution of these kingdoms, is here vested in the king, lords, and commons.

* Called by the Saxons *GUTEL*, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

† Judge Blackstone maintains, that a great or general council of the realm had been held immemorially under the several names of *micel-synoth*, or great council; *micel-gemote*, or great meeting; and more frequently *writena-gemote*, or the meeting of wise men. It was also styled in Latin *commune concilium regni*, and sometimes *communitas-regni Anglie*. We have instances of its meeting to order the affairs of the kingdom, to make new laws and amend the old, so early as the reign of Ina king of the West Saxons about A. D. 725, Offa king of the Mercians, and Ethelbert king of Kent, in several realms of the heptarchy. The *MIRROUR* informs us, that king Alfred ordained for a perpetual usage, that these councils should meet twice a year, or oftener if need be. Our succeeding Saxon and Danish monarchs held frequent councils of this sort, as appears from their respective codes of laws. There is also no doubt, but these great councils were held regularly under the first princes of the Norman line, for in Edward the Third's time, an act of parliament made in the reign of William the Conqueror, was pleaded in the case of the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury, and judicially allowed by the court.

OF THE KING.] The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland, is vested by our constitution in a single person, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends: the person entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itself; but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed, or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen; whose eldest daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance. So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his accession. For Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand daughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, supposing it not abolished by the Conquest, resided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct lineal descendant; and therefore united in his person every possible claim by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert, and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of estates, or representative body of the nation, declared, that the misconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Protestant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference, to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the Protestant line of king James I. viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being protestants; and she is now the common stock, from whom the heirs of the crown must descend*.

The true ground and principle, upon which the revolution proceeded, was entirely a new case in politics, which had never before happened in our history; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeasance of the right of succession, and a new limitation of the crown,

* A Chronology of English Kings, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the island, the Saxons and Angles having about four cen-

by the king and both houses of parliament : it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full assembly of the lords

suries before, invaded and subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.

- | | | | |
|---|--|-----------------------------|------------------|
| 800 Egbert | 871 Alfred the Great | 955 Edwy | } Saxon Princes. |
| 838 Ethelwulf | 901 Edward the Elder | 959 Edgar | |
| 857 Ethelbald | 925 Athelstan | 975 Edward the Martyr | |
| 880 Ethelbert | 941 Edmund | 978 Ethelred II. | |
| 866 Ethelred | 946 Edred | 1016 Edmund II. or Ironside | |
| 1017 Canute, king of Denmark | } Danish. | | |
| 1035 Harold | | | |
| 1039 Hardicanute | | | |
| 1041 Edward the Confessor | } Saxon. | | |
| 1065 Harold | | | |
| 1066 William I. | { (Commonly called the conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French monarchy. | | |
| 1087 William II. | { Sons of the Conqueror. | | |
| 1100 Henry I. | | | |
| 1135 Stephen, grandson to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela. | | | |
| 1154 Henry II. | { (Plantagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter the empress Matilda, and her second husband Geoffroy Plantagenet. | | |
| 1189 Richard I. | { Sons of Henry II. | | |
| 1199 John | | | |
| 1216 Henry III. son of John. | | | |
| 1272 Edward I. son of Henry III. | | | |
| 1307 Edward II. son of Edward I. | | | |
| 1327 Edward III. son of Edward II. | | | |
| 1377 Richard II. grandson of Edward III. by his eldest son, the Black Prince. | | | |
| 1399 Henry IV. | { Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, 4th son to Edward III. | | |
| 1413 Henry V. son of Henry IV. | { House of Lancaster. | | |
| 1422 Henry VI. son of Henry V. | | | |
| 1461 Edward IV. descended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d son. | { House of York. | | |
| 1483 Edward V. son of Edward IV. | | | |
| 1483 Richard III. brother of Edward IV. | | | |
| 1485 Henry VII. | { (Tudor) son of the countess of Richmond, of the House of Lancaster. | | |
| 1509 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII. | { House of Tudor, in whom were united the houses of Lancaster and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. | | |
| 1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII. | | | |
| 1553 Mary | { Daughters of Henry VIII. | | |
| 1558 Elizabeth | | | |
| 1603 James I. | { Great grandson of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and first of the Stuart family in England. | | |
| 1625 Charles I. son of James I. | | | |
| Commonwealth, and protectorate of Cromwell. | | | |
| 1649 Charles II. | { Sons of Charles I. | | |
| 1685 James II. | | | |
| 1688 William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II. | | | |
| 1688 and Mary | { Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Protestant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his infant son (the late Pretender) who was excluded by act of parliament, which settled the succession in the next Protestant heirs of James I. The surviving issue of James, at the time of his death, were a son and a daughter, viz. Charles, who succeeded him, and the princess Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the Princess Sophia, who married the duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, by whom she had George, elector of Hanover, who ascended the throne, by act of parliament, expressly made in favour of his mother. | | |
| 1702 Anne | | | |
| 1714 George I. | { House of Hanover. | | |
| 1727 George II. son of George I. | | | |
| 1760 George III. grandson of George II. | | | |

and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy, both houses came to this resolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jesuits, and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of succession: which from the Norman invasion had lasted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

Though in some points the revolution was not so perfect as might have been wished, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history. In particular, it is worthy observation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wisdom the extremes into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this misconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion, or total dissolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the constitution was kept intire; which, upon every sound principle of government must otherwise have fallen to pieces, had so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect, that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor, from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to such heirs only, of the body of the princess Sophia, as are Protestant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Protestants. And in this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in his oath at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops, or bishops of the realm, in the presence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"The archbishop, or bishop, shall say, Will you solemnly promise and swear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same?*—The king or queen shall say,* I solemnly promise so to do.

"Archbishop or bishop. Will you to your power cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?*—King or queen.* I will.

"Archbishop or bishop. Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges

as by the law do or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen.* All this I promise to do.

"After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy gospels, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God. And then kjs the book."

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now prescribed by our laws: and we may observe, that in the king's part, in this original contract, are expressed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding statutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England, which enact; the former, that every king at his succession shall take and subscribe an oath, to preserve the Protestant religion, and Presbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation he shall take and subscribe a similar oath, to preserve the settlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is one of the greatest monarchs reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, nor raise any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it had passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom ventured to exercise. He possesseth the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

[OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils, in some shape, are, as has been observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and indeed coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable Commentaries, says, "it is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215 in the great charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons personally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown by the sheriff and bailiffs to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burghesses to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm; the lords spiritual, the lords temporal (who sit together with the king in one house), and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

It is highly necessary for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent: since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legislature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preserves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, since the union with Scotland, by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers, who represent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly necessary in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity, which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne: and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the last century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom, as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives*. In a free state, every man, who is supposed a free agent, ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the peo-

* This must be understood with some limitation. Those who are possessed of land estates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousand persons of great personal property, have, therefore, no representatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveness of the representation, has been justly considered as one of the greatest imperfections in the English constitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to seven years, has also been viewed in the same light.

ple. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived; that the people should do that by their representatives, which it is impracticable to perform in person: representatives, chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation. The number of English representatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says Sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical, or temporal, civil, military, maritime or criminal: this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is entrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the established religion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then their power, however great, was given them in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust, as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as Sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy."

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise, by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable, or else improper, to manage it, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even

though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and of their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the court of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law; as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent; which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from the journals: but this has always been thought a violent measure, and not very consistent with the general right of protesting.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to see them redressed.

The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the ancient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, raised upon the subject for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons, is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves.

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition; which must be presented by a

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts, was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished their privilege by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety). This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either selected by the house in matters of small importance, or else, if the bill is a matter of great, or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and desire their concurrence; who, attended by several more, carries it to the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his woolfack to receive it. It there passes through the forms, as in the other house (except engrossing, which is already done), and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or, sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the same: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house; who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference: but, if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and

then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. And when both houses have done with any bill, it always is deposited in the house of peers, to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. It may be necessary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houses, and in their committees, the slightest expression, or most minute alteration, does not pass till the speaker, or the chairman, puts the question; which, in the house of commons, is answered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the house of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The giving the royal assent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the house of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly sat, is reserved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the house sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the house of commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and in delivering them he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion, that the commons of Great-Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it so to be;" if to a private bill, *soit fait comme il est desire*, "be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'avisera*, "the king will advise upon it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *le roy remercie ses loyal subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject; *les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parliament assemblees, au nom de tous vos autres subjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeste, et prient à Dieu vous donner en sante bonne vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the statute 35 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his assent by letters patent under his great seal, signed with his hand, and notified, in his absence to both houses assembled together in the high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers, named in the letters. And, when the bill

has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of parliament.

This statute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; because every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being present thereat by his representatives. However, copies thereof are usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the whole land.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears, that no security for its permanency, which the wit of man can devise, is wanting. If it should be objected, that parliaments may become so corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the answer is that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to watch over their political existence, as a private person does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it must become *felo de se*, an evil that no human provisions can guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in England; and though the constitution has been even overturned, and sometimes dangerously wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and still preserve it. Monsr. Mezeray, the famous historian, said to a countryman of ours, in the close of the last century, "We had once in France the same happiness and the same privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by representatives of our own choosing, therefore our money was not taken from us, but granted by us.* Our kings were then subject to the rules of law and reason—now, alas! we are miserable, and all is lost. Think nothing, sir, too dear to maintain these precious advantages; if ever there should be occasion, venture your life and estate, rather than basely and foolishly submit to that abject condition to which you see us reduced."

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers to assist him, and who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the necessary oaths, they become immediately privy-counsellors during the life of the king that chuses them; but subject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counsellor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his cunning and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counsel secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And, lastly in general, 7. To observe, keep, and do all that a good and true counsellor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, can supply the deficiency. It has even been known, that upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

The office of secretary of state is at present divided into a southern and a northern department. The southern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss Cantons, Constantinople, and, in short, all the states in the southern parts. The northern comprehends the different states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanseatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government which were formerly entrusted with the secretaries of state, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entrusted. This cabinet generally consists of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court: but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads me to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the *first minister*; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord high chancellor as minister, but the affairs of his own courts give him sufficient employment. When the office of the first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister. But though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. I shall now take a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their posts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the lord high steward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at least for life; but now and for centuries past it is exercised only occasionally; that is, at a coronation, or to sit as judge on a peer or peers, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by some high nobleman. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whose commission, as high steward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law, in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counsellor by his office, and according to some, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of peace; he is visitor in right of the king of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics; and hath the superintendence of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The post of lord high treasurer has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury; but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of lord high treasurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown-lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom.

The lord president of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor, and lord treasurer. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West-India causes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged to the vast convenience of the subject by an able president.

The office of lord privy seal consists in his putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the fitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers, &c.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country, as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory for its diſcharge. In war time he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaiſt variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt triſle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedence according to their archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England is* now held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the growth of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board; and the members muſt ſign even the death warrants for execution; but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removeable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees; the

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* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands, and goods; and consequently if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reasons for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business; through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament, or choosing of members; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewise, a kind of cheque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of the king's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the house of peers does often direct the lord chief justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices, or judges of the king's bench.

The court of Common Pleas take cognizance of all pleas debateable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject; and in it, besides all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The first judge of this court is styled lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, or common bench; beside whom there are likewise three other judges, or justices of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons preside as judges. They are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Besides these, there is a fifth, called curfitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and their officers, and also to several of the officers of the custom-house.—But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treasurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined.—Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids and subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the Sheriffs and their officers. The lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processes against Sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmoreland and Middlesex) by the king*; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs

* Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties. In some counties the sheriffs were formerly hereditary, and still continue in the county of Westmoreland. The city of London hath also the inheritance of the shrievalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter.

directed to him out of the king's court of justice; to impanel juries, to bring causes and malefactors to trial, to see sentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners, and of verdurers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the sheriff, or his under-sheriffs, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the Sheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences against the common law, where by the statute law there was no restraint. This court, however, has been long since abolished. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the sheriff are various officers; as the under-sheriff, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff, is the *justice of peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is entrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the justices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county. The justice of peace ought to be a person of great good sense, sagacity, and integrity, and to be not without some knowledge of the law: for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is so intoxicating, without these qualifications he will be apt to make mistakes, and to step beyond his authority; for which he is indeed liable to be called to an account at the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to enquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In his ministerial office, he is the sheriff's substitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent policy of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in all matters civil and criminal: with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, who, together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuse their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power

of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the same manner: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently esquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added with similar franchises in many respects. These cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they should provide a certain number of ships, at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil, or manor (who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to present and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on a descent or purchase.

A constable is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high-constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable; and they are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another ancient officer, called the tything-man, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burgs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burg consisting of ten families. The business of constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute within his district, every warrant that is directed to him from the magistrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preservation of the peace, and the more easy recovery of small debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found necessary to revive some of them, and to appoint others of a similar nature.

Beside these, there are courts of conscience settled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any constitution provided with so many fences, as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

The rights of individuals are so attentively considered, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be cast, and be obliged to pay damages to his subject. He cannot take away the liberty of the least individual, unless he has, by some illegal act, of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt: such as the case of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has

thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas Corpus act: but this seldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national safety has absolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty, by twelve men, who must be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his ministers, to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any subject, without trial, and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society; nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty, for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens if required, for the more impartial trial. A privilege indulged to strangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred*. In some cases, the man (who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number†, and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the prisoners whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and understanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every juryman is therefore invested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submits his opinion to that of any of the other jury, or yields in compliance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmost care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or after the most impartial hearing has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused; he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of English-

* Statute de monticulis Wallie.

† The party may challenge thirty-five in case of treason.

men consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wishes to be brought in guilty. Were not this the case, juries would be useless; so far from being judges themselves, they would only be the tools of another, whose province it is not to guide, but to give a sanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the subject, and the judge on the bench be the minister of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is so capital a privilege, and so great a security to the liberty of the subject, it is much to be regretted, that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. No man should be above serving so important an office, when regularly called upon: and those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of this country derive from this invaluable institution. Juries have, indeed, always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject, says he, let all ways be tried to justify him; and if that is not possible to be done, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subject may not get too great a custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy constitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meanest, as well as the greatest. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made use of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be useful to foreigners and others, who have not seen those proceedings.

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the prisoner answers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he answers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confessed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the prisoner refuses to

plead, that is, if he will not say in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he is by the law of England, *guilty*.

When the witnesses have given in their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their conscience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *guilty*, or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt arises among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this their confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in some doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in *special*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the prisoner be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy—it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner, in these words: *The law is, That thou shalt return to the place from whence thou camest, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy soul:* whereupon the sheriff is charged with the execution.

All the prisoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and discharged, and in some cases obtain a copy of their indictment from the court to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treason*, *petty treason*, and *felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading: a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe*.

The punishment for misprision of high treason, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by the offender's

No. X.

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* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

being drawn in a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive; but instead of suffering the full rigour of the law, they are strangled at the stake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging, only * murderers are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there were some alleviating circumstances, used sometimes to be transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; but since the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years, and lately some have been sent to Africa, Nova Scotia and Botany Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless the offender was doing an unlawful act; which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shoplifting and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty Larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve pence, is punished by whipping.

Libelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing on the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking, in Westminster-hall, while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunks, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The first private relation of persons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife; or, as most of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulling, of incestuous, or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.

The first legal impediment is a prior marriage, or having another husband or wife living; in which case, besides the penalties consequent upon it as a felony, the second marriage is to all intents and purposes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Testament, and the policy of all prudent states, especially in these northern climates. The second legal impediment is want of age. This is sufficient to void all other contracts, on account of the imbecility of judgment in the

* By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, marries, this marriage is invalid; and, when either of them comes to the age of consent aforesaid, they may disagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or sentence in the spiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the constitution than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in our law it is so far a marriage, that if at the age of consent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the husband be of years of discretion, and the wife under twelve, when she comes to years of discretion, he may disagree as well as she may; for in contract the obligation must be mutual; both must be bound, or neither; and so it is, *vice versa*, when the wife is of years of discretion, and the husband under.

Another incapacity arises from want of consent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themselves were of age of consent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid; and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by several statutes, penalties of 100*l.* are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple either without publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians), or without a licence; to obtain which, the consent of parents or guardians must be sworn to. And it has lately been thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice), where either of the parties is under twenty-one (not being a widow, or widower, who are supposed free) without the consent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. A provision is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond the sea, or unreasonably froward, to dispense with such consent at the discretion of the lord chancellor; but no provision is made, in case the father should labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been said, both for and against this innovation upon our ancient laws and constitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandestine marriages of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to those private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, restraints upon marriages, especially among the lower class, are evidently detrimental to the public, by hindering the increase of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiousness and debauchery among the single of both sexes, and thereby destroying one end of society and government.

A fourth incapacity is want of reason; without a competent share of which, as no other, so neither can the matrimonial contract be valid.

Lastly, the parties must not only be willing and able to contract, but actually must contract themselves in the due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at present valid, that is not celebrated in some parish church, or public chapel, unless by dispensation from the archbishop of Canterbury. It must also be preceded by publication of banns, or by licence from the spiritual judge. It is held to be also essential to marriage, that it be performed by a person in orders: though in the times of the civil war, all marriages were performed by the justices of the peace; and these marriages were declared valid in the succeeding reign; as the marriages of Quakers are at present. As the law now stands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is celebrated by a person in orders,—in a parish church, or public chapel (or elsewhere, by dispensation)—in pursuance of banns or a licence,—between single persons,—consenting,—of sound mind,—and of the age of twenty-one years; or of the age of fourteen in male, and twelve in female, with consent of parents or guardians, or without it in case of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical impediments, and those existing before the marriage: as consanguinity, affinity, &c. The issue of such marriage, as it is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is just and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it; but, for some supervenient cause, it becomes improper, or impossible, for the parties to live together; as in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law allows alimony to the wife, (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman, for her support, out of the husband's estate; being settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge, on the consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus shewn how marriages may be made, or dissolved, I come now, lastly, to speak of the legal consequences of such making, or dissolution.

By marriage the husband and wife are one person in law; that is, the very being, or legal existence of the woman, is suspended during the marriage, or at least is incorporated and consolidated into that of the husband: under whose wing, protection, and cover, she performs every thing, and is therefore called in our Law French, a *feme-covert*, under the protection and influence of her husband, her *baron*, or lord; and her condition, during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle, of an union of person in husband and wife, depend almost all the legal rights, duties, and disabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I speak not at present of the rights of property, but of such as are merely *personal*. For this reason a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into a covenant with her; for the grant would be to suppose her separate existence; and the covenant with her would be only to covenant with himself; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between husband and wife, when single, are voided by the inter-marriage. A woman indeed may be attorney for her husband; for that implies no separation from, but is rather a representation of, her lord. And a husband may also bequeath any thing to his wife by will; for that cannot take effect till the *coverture* is terminated by his death. The husband is bound to provide his wife with necessaries by law, as much as himself; and if she contracts debts for them, he is obliged to pay them; but, for any thing, besides necessaries, he is not chargeable. Also if the wife elopes, and lives with another man, the husband is not chargeable even for necessaries: at least, if the person who furnishes them, is sufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the husband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumstances together. If the wife be injured in her person or property, she can bring no action for redress without her husband's concurrence, and in his name, as well as her own; neither can she be sued, without making the husband a defendant; except when the husband has abjured the realm, or is banished; for then he is dead in law. In criminal prosecutions, it is true, the wife may be indicted, and punished separately; for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any sort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or against, each other; partly because it is impossible their testimony should be indifferent; but principally because of the union of person. But where the offence is directly against the person of the wife, this rule has been usually dispensed with; and, therefore, in case a woman be forcibly taken away, and married, she may be a witness against such her husband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons;

and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore, in our ecclesiastical courts, a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her, through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her, but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to entrust him with this power of restraining her, by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. } The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. These corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, disused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first fruits and tenths of benefices. At present, such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that those four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present are contracted within a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies; and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament assembled: who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exche-

quer) may propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general esteemed to be (as it were) final and conclusive. For, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the house of commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandise exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post-office*, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp-duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions, with a variety of new taxes in the sessions of 1784.

The clear neat produce of these several branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is estimated to amount annually to about eleven millions sterling; with two millions and a quarter raised at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the *interest* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it must be first premised, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in settling the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the house of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased to an unusual degree: insomuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferrable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A system which seems to have had its original in the state of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000l. sterling: and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate sum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank: the shares whereof were transferrable like our stocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deserve that name. And the example then set, has been so closely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and since, that the capital of the funded debt, at midsummer 1775 was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increased from 5000l. to 198,226l. but it should be observed, that the gross amount of both inland and foreign offices was that year 235,492l. In 1764, the gross amount of the revenues of the Post-office for that year was 432,048, which, by the act passed in the sessions of 1784, increasing the duty according to the distance, and abridging the franking, must be considerably augmented.

amounted to 4,219,254*l.* 7*s.* The ruinous American war commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the sinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for supplies, have considerably increased it*.

The following was the state of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commissioners of the public accounts :

<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
211,363,254	15	4	Funded debt			
			Interest thereon	7,951,930	1	0
18,856,541	11	4	Unfunded 1 st of October, 1783 :			
			fifteen millions of this bear interest			
			now.			
			Interest thereon	612,742	0	0
<hr/>						
230,219,706	6	9				

Charges at the Bank for managing the business	134,291	13	1
Fees at the auditor's office of imprest	19,874	2	8
Some other fees of office	696	12	4

8,719,534 9 1

Since this report the funded debt hath increased to	232,280,349	0	0
The unfunded debt, meaning all expences, deficiencies, arrears, and outstanding debts, for paying the principal or interest of which no provision was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned	38,000,000	0	0
The amount of exchequer bills	9,418,564	0	0
	<hr/> 279,698,913 0 0		

Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation by its debts funded and unfunded, appears to be about	9,500,000	0	0
Peace establishment reckoned at the average annual expence for eleven years preceding the war	3,950,000	0	0
Income of the civil list	900,000	0	0
	<hr/> 14,350,000 0 0		
Whole expenditure			

The supplies demanded for the year 1784 amounted to 14,181,240*l.* but an eminent political writer, lord Stair, reckons the future annual peace expenditure at sixteen millions and a half, including half a million for a surplus to answer emergencies. Another respectable writer on the subject, estimates it at 13,615,669*l.* including 954,000*l.* *per annum.* for the interest and charge of what remained of the unfunded debt after the last loan, and he estimates the peace revenue at near sixteen millions. Time will unfold the future progress of our national debt, and the calamities towards

* In the course of the late war from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000*l.* was added to the 3 *per cents.* and 26,750,000*l.* to the 4 *per cents.* making together a capital of 73,400,000*l.* for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

which it is carrying us, if the most effectual measures are not adopted and zealously pursued for a thorough reformation.

It is indisputably certain, that the present magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greatest inconveniencies. For, first, the enormous taxes that are raised upon the necessaries of life, for the payment of the interest of this debt, are prejudicial both to trade and manufacture; by raising the price as well of the artificer's subsistence, as of the raw material; and of course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itself. Secondly, if part of this debt be due to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a considerable quantity of specie for the interest; for else it is made an argument to grant them unreasonable privileges, in order to induce them to reside here. Thirdly, if the whole be due to subjects only, it is then charging the active and industrious subject, who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Lastly, and principally, it weakens the internal strength of a state, by anticipating those resources which should be reserved to defend it in case of necessity. The interest we now pay for our debts would be nearly sufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require.

The produce of the several taxes before mentioned were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting and blending them together: superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for some years about 2,600,000*l. per annum.*; the *general fund*, so called from such union and addition, which for some years have amounted to rather more than a million *per annum*; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such parts of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million *per annum*. Whereby the separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund; the faith of the legislature being moreover engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumptions, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been considerably more than sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surplusses therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the *sinking fund*, because originally destined to be held sacred and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been since added many other intire duties, granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective credits, is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the sinking fund. However, the neat surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum. For, as the interest on the national debt has been at several times reduced (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest, or be paid their principal), the savings from the appropriated revenues must be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever discharging or moderating

out incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large sums, now arising from this fund, is a point of the utmost importance, and well worthy the serious attention of parliament †.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, several encroachments were made upon the sinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by sir Robert Walpole under pretence of easing the landed interest. The practice of alienating the sinking fund being thus begun, hath continued of course; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and every subsequent administration hath broken in upon it, thus converting the excellent expedient for saving the kingdom, into a supply for extravagance and a support of corruption and despotism.

In some years, the sinking fund hath produced from two to three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000*l.* of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733, instead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the case at present, one hundred and sixty millions would have been paid and the nation have been extricated and saved. Different schemes have been formed for paying the public debts, but no method can be so expeditious and effectual as an unalienable sinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound interest*, and therefore in the most perfect manner, but money produced by a loan bears only simple interest. "A nation therefore whenever it applies the income of such a fund to current expences rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses to lose the benefit of compound interest in order to avoid paying simple interest, and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between the increase of money at compound and simple interest."

† So very sensible was the present minister, Mr. Pitt, of the necessity of a well-regulated sinking fund, that under his auspices an act passed, May 26th, 1786, appointing commissioners for reducing the national debt, by applying one million sterling, to that purpose, by purchasing 250,000*l.* sterling of the stocks quarterly. An extract from *Cuffin's patent table* here annexed, will shew at one view not only the amount and interest of the national debt but also the operation of Mr. Pitt's million to a recent period.

FUNDS.	Capital of each Stock.	Annual Interest.	Funds purchased by Commissioners, commencing and August, 1786.		
3 Per Cents Navy Ann.*	17,889,993,57,10	393,499,19,5	3 per cents consols	Principal	Ann. Interest
3 Per Cents consols	107,399,696,5,14	3,221,990,17,8		£ 930,000	£ 27,900
3 Per Cents 1736	1,000,000	30,000	3 per cents NSS Ann.	227,000	6,810
South Sea Stock	3,662,784,8,6	128,197,9,1	2 per cents 1751	89,000	2,670
3 Per Cents new S. Sea Ann.	8,494,830,2,10	254,844,18,1	3 per cents reduced	408,700	12,161
3 Per Cents 1751	1,919,600	57,588	3 per cents OSS Ann	350,600	10,788
India Stock	4,000,000	320,000			
Exchequer Annuities†		136,453,12,8			
Life Annuities		67,296,11,7			
Bank Stock	11,621,400	698,344			
4 Per Cents consols	32,750,000	1,310,000			
3 Per Cents reduced	37,340,073,16,4	1,120,402,4,3			
3 Per Cents old S. Sea Ann.	11,907,470,2,7	357,244,2,0			
3 Per Cents India Annuities	3,000,000	90,000			
Long Annuities‡		680,000			
Annuities 1778 and 1779 §		412,500			
	£ 1240,986,848,5,22	9,778,341,8,10		£ 2,314,300	£ 69,416

* Redeemable when 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents are paid.
the whole in July, 1807.

† January, 1860.

‡ Some of these will fall in October, 1790 and 1808.

§ Dr. Price's calculation plainly shews what this difference is: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth at 5 per cent. compound interest, would in the year 1781, have increased to a greater sum than would be contained in 200 millions of earths all solid gold; but if put out at simple interest

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the surplusses whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the sinking fund) can be applied to diminish the principal of the public debt, it stands mortgaged by parliament to raise an annual sum for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list. For this purpose, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profits arising from courts of justice (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown), and also a clear annuity of 120,000*l.* in money, were settled on the king for life, for the support of his majesty's household, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of these several branches was uncertain, (though in the last reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a million), if they did not rise annually to 800,000*l.* the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that his own hereditary revenues might be so disposed of, as might best conduce to the utility and satisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited sum of 800,000*l.* *per annum*, for the support of his civil list (and that also charged with three life annuities, to the princess of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princess Amelia, to the amount of 77,000*l.*), the said hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, besides annual payments to the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, and the representatives of Arthur Onslow, Esq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themselves, being put under the same care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected than heretofore. The civil list, thus liquidated, together with the millions interest of the national debt, and the sums produced from the sinking fund, beside the uncertain sums, arising from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately imposed, make the clear produce of the taxes, exclusive of the charge of collecting, which raised yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of fourteen millions sterling.

The expences defrayed by the civil list, are those that in any shape relate to civil government; as the expences of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purse, and other very numerous outgoings; as secret service-money, pensions, and other bounties. These sometimes have so far exceeded the revenues

it in the same time would have amounted to no more than seven shillings and six pence. All governments that alienate funds destined for reimbursements, choose to improve money in the *last* rather than the *first* of those ways." He adds, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. stock, if discharged at 6*ol.* in money for every 100*l.* stock; and in forty years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million, by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in the same periods.

"In short; so necessary is it at present to expedite, by every possible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the surplus which can be obtained for a sinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for saving the kingdom.—The increase of taxes which such a measure must occasion, would be so inconsiderable and so gradual, as to be scarcely perceptible; and, at the same time, it would manifest such a determined resolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happiest influence on public credit.

appointed for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament, to discharge the debts contracted on the civil list; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpose by the statute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large sums have also been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the present reign; and the considerable augmentation of 100,000*l.* has likewise been made to his annual income. When the bill for suppressing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which savings were to be made to the amount of 72,368*l.* per annum, it appeared that the arrears then due on the civil list at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.* notwithstanding so liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt provision was made by the bill.

The civil list is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and distributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now standing in the same place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminished, the parliamentary appointments have increased.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH } The *military state* includes the whole
OF GREAT BRITAIN. } of the soldiery; or, such persons as are
peculiarly appointed among the rest of the people, for the safeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such, no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws and constitution of these kingdoms know no such state, as that of a perpetual standing soldier, bred up to no other profession than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons.

It seems universally agreed by all historians, that king Alfred first settled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent discipline made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasions. Besides those, who by their military tenures were bound to perform forty days service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed by the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into orders of more modern service: but both this and the former provision were repealed in the reign of James I. While these continued in force, it was usual from time to time, for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission of array was settled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his shire, but in cases of urgent necessity; nor should provide soldiers unless by consent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we

find them mentioned as known officers in the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magistrates, constituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the restoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to ascertain the power of the militia, to recognise the sole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination: and the order in which the militia now stands by law, is principally built upon the statutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two last of them are apparently repealed; but many of their provisions are re-enacted, with the addition of some new regulations, by the present militia-laws; the general scheme of which, is to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their discipline in general is liberal and easy; but, when drawn out into actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law, as necessary to keep them in order. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence, and which the statutes declare, is essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom; the militia, however, are not called forth and embodied but by an act of the legislature, and at present are laid aside.

But as the fashion of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though some of its potentates, being unable themselves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourse to richer powers, and receive subsidiary pensions for that purpose), it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The land forces* of these kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the East Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, since the commencement of the American war, 135,000 men, besides 42,000 militia. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law martial for their government. By

* The land forces consist of

2 Troops of horse-guards, raised in 1660.—2 Troops of horse-grenadier-guards, raised in 1693, and 1702.—1 Royal regiment of horse-guards, ditto, 1661.—4 Regiments of horse-guards, ditto 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of dragoon-guards, ditto 1685.—18 Regiments of dragoons, including light-horse, raised between 1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards, raised in 1660.—70 Regiments of foot, the first, or Royal Scots, raised in 1633, the others between 1661 and 1762.—20 independent companies of invalids. 4 Battalions of Royal Artillery, a royal regiment of artillery in Ireland, and a corps of engineers: together, with 4 divisions of marine forces.—1 Regiment of light dragoons, and 5 battalions of foot in East India. Several regiments raised for the service of the crown, from the commencement of the American war, have lately been disbanded.

this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and soldier shall excite, or join any mutiny, or knowing of it, shall not give notice to the commanding officer; or shall desert, or lift in any other regiment, or sleep upon his post, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correspondence with a rebel or enemy, or strike or use violence to his superior officer, or shall disobey his lawful command; such offender shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall inflict, though it extends to death itself.

Officers and soldiers that have been in the king's service, are, by several statutes enacted at the close of several wars, at liberty to use any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two universities) notwithstanding any statute, custom, or charter to the contrary. And soldiers, in actual military service, may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal chattels, without those forms, solemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other cases.

Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majesty's Land Forces on the British Establishment.

	Royal Reg. of Horse-guards.		Dragoons.		Foot Guards.		Foot.	
	F. Pay.	Subsid.	F. Pay.	Subsid.	F. Pay.	Subsid.	F. Pay.	Subsid.
Colonel and Captain	2 1	11	1 15	1 6	1 19	1 10	1 4	10
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain	1 9	6	1 4	6	1 8	6	1 7	13
Major and Captain	1 7	1 6	1 6	15	1 4	6	1 8	15
Captain	1 1	6	1 5	6	1 6	6	1 10	7
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	15	11	9	7	7	10	6	4
Cornet h. g. & dr. Enf. ft. g. Enf. or 2d Lt. ft.	14	11	8	6	5	10	4	6
Chaplain	6	8	5	6	5	6	5	8
Adjutant	5	0	4	6	4	3	4	3
Quarter-Master	8	6	5	6	4	3	4	3
Surgeon	6	4	6	4	4	3	4	3
Surgeon's Mate					3	6	3	6
Drum Major					1	6	1	
Deputy Marshal								
Sergeant			2	9	2	3	1	10
Corporal			2	3	1	5	1	2
Drummer			2	5	2	3	1	9
Trumpeter			2	1				
Private Man			2	6	1	9	1	5
Allowance on the Establishment to			2	6	1	7	6	1
Colonel			2	6	1	7	6	1
Dyffor haustois			2	6	1	7	6	1
Captain			2	4	1	1	1	1
Agent			1	2	1	2	1	2

New Establishment of the Corps of Engineers, October 1st, 1784.

Rank	Per Day.	Per Ann.	Rank	Per Day.	Per Ann.
	£. S. D.	£. S. D.		£. S. D.	£. S. D.
Master General	0 0 0	0 0 0	Ten Captains	0 6 0	1095 0 0
Lieutenant General	0 0 0	0 0 0	Twenty Lieutenants	0 7 8	1703 6 8
Chief Engineer	2 4 0	803 0 0	Ten Second Lieutenants	0 4 0	730 0 0
Five Colonels, each	0 18 0	1644 10 0	Corps of Invalids	2 17 8	1234 10 0
Five Lieutenant Colonels	0 15 0	1368 15 0			
Ten Captains	0 10 0	1825 0 0			

Total £ 10402 10 0

The MARITIME state is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval

reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and substruction of all the marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of England then consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statutes, called the navigation act; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and seamen was not only encouraged but rendered unavoidably necessary. The most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the sugar islands, which were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II. by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother-country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of that European nation, of which the merchandise imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued, by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the master, and three-fourths of the mariners, shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have formerly amounted to no less than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament for the service of the year 1784, is for 26,000 seamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm, that the British navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the course of a few years it entirely vanquished the whole naval power of France, disabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection of the British empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into several powerful squadrons, so judiciously stationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while some fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Asia and America, others were employed in frustrating the designs of France, and escorting home the riches of the eastern and western worlds.

I shall close this account of the military and maritime strength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by observing, that though sea officers and sailors are sub-

ject to a perpetual act of parliament, which answers the annual military act, that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies are exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate, to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. Those civil magistrates, who understand the principles of the constitution, are, however, extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or upon any commotion whatever: and, indeed, with good reason; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.*

COINS.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence, twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound, which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the silver, of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, and even down to a silver penny; and the copper money only of halfpence and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinsic value of silver is nearly equal, and in some coins, crown pieces particularly, superior to the nominal, the coinage of silver money is a matter of great consequence; and yet the present state of the national currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and sixpences; the intrinsic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public losing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current; nor is any silver coin that is lower than sixpence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

* The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN, as it stood at August, 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Complement of Men.		Weight of Metal.	
	Guns.	No. of each rate.	Men.	Metals:
1st. 100 and upwards	—	5	875 to 850	42 24 12 6
2d. 98 to 90.	—	20	750 to 700	32 18 12 6
3d. 80 to 64.	—	130	650 to 500	32 18 9 6
4th. 60 to 50.	—	27	440 to 380	24 12 6 & 18 9 6
5th. 44 to 32.	—	102	300 to 220	18 9 6 & 12 6
6th. 30 to 20.	—	59	200 to 160	9 4
<hr/>				
Sloops,	—	334	—	—
Bombs, Fireships, &c.	18 to 14.	143	125 to 110	—
	—	19	—	—
	Total,	496	—	—

In commission 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 sloops. When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service, the same name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom: While a single beam of the old ship remains, the name cannot be changed unless by act of parliament.

The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to
Flags. per day.

Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	—	—	5	0	0
An Admiral	—	—	3	10	0
Vice Admiral	—	—	2	10	0
Rear Admiral	—	—	1	15	0
First Captain to the Commander in Chief	—	—	1	15	0
Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals	—	—	1	0	0
— to V. Admirals } if first or second Rates, to }	—	—	0	15	0
— to R. Admirals } have the Pay of such Rates }	—	—	0	13	6

OFFICERS.

	First.			Second.			Third.			Fourth.			Fifth.			Sixth.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Captain per day	1	0	0	16	0	0	13	6	0	10	0	0	8	0	0	8	0	0
Lieutenant per day	0	5	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	4	0	0
Master per month	9	2	0	8	0	7	6	0	6	12	0	6	2	8	5	0	0	0
2d. master and pilots of yachts, each gr. 10s.																		
Master's mate	3	6	0	3	0	0	16	2	2	7	10	2	2	0	2	2	0	0
Midshipman	0	5	0	0	0	0	17	0	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0	0
Schoolmaster	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0	0
Captain's Clerk	2	5	0	2	0	0	17	0	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0	0
Quarter-master	1	15	0	1	15	0	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	0
Quarter-master's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	0
Boatwain	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	16	0	2	5	0	2	0	0	0
Boatwain's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	0
Yeoman of the Sheets	1	12	0	1	10	0	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	0
Coxwain	1	12	0	1	10	0	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	0
Master sail maker	1	15	0	1	15	0	15	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	0
Sail maker's mate	1	8	0	1	8	0	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	0
Sail maker's crew	1	5	0	1	5	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Gunner	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0	0
Gunner's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15	0	1	15	0	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	0
Quarter Gunner*	1	6	0	1	6	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Armourer	2	5	0	2	0	0	17	6	1	13	5	1	10	0	1	10	0	0
Armourer's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	0
Gunsmith	1	5	0	1	5	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Carpenter	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0	0
Carpenter's mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	16	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	0
Carpenter's crew	1	6	0	1	6	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Purser	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0	0
Steward	1	5	0	1	5	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Steward's mate	1	5	0	1	5	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Cook	1	5	0	1	5	0	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	0
Surgeon †	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0
Surgeon's first mate	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0
— second mate	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0
— third mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
— fourth and fifth	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0
Chaplain ‡	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, } The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of
AND ORDERS. } God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, De-
fender of the Faith. The designation of the kings of England was formerly, his or
her Grace, or Highness, till Henry VIII. to put himself on a footing with the empe-
ror Charles V. assumed that of majesty; but the old designation was not abolished till
towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

* One to every four guns.

† Besides 2d. a month for each man.

‡ Besides 2d. a month for each man.

Since the accession of the present royal family of Great Britain anno 1714, the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, in the first grand quarter, *Mars, three lions passant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial ensigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flowered, and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars*. The second quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleur-de-lis, Sol*. The third, the ensigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna*. And the fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions passant guardant, Sol*, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, fence of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horse currant Luna ente (or grafted) in base*; and in a shield surtout, *Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to shew his independency upon all earthly powers. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very significant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*. "None shall safely provoke me."

The titles of the king's eldest son, are, Prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the sovereign who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the titular saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue riband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but since the latter end of James I. now crosses their bodies from the shoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the BATH, so called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are supposed to be instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns, they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other solemn occasions, and they wear a scarlet riband hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the first rank, were installed knights of the order with great ceremony, at Westminster, where the place of instalment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid, and the number of knights is undetermined.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom; as is also the order of St. Patrick, newly instituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can scarcely be said to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary ho-

nour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counsellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000*l.* on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland: but at present their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and in general signifies a soldier serving on horseback; a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himself to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of *bannerets*, batchelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now disused. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portsmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knight's Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the hands of the supporters.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *esquire*, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied promiscuously to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Gower the poet, appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an esquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires; and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than esquires, though commonly designed by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all English honour; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

[History.] It is generally agreed, that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that settled on the opposite shore: a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

In the account I have given of the laws and constitution, may be found great part of the history of England, which I shall not here repeat, but confine myself to the different gradations of events, in a chronological order, connected with the improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, and manufactures, at their proper periods.

When Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated a conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæsar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary, and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons at the time of Cæsar's descent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hert-

fordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

In their manner of life, as described by Cæsar and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly sowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognised as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls I have so often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of the superior strength of body, and courage of the inhabitants, when disciplined. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have been in no pain about the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself*, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always opposed the progress of the Romans in this island, advanced the more boldly into the southern parts, carrying terror and desolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were so accustomed to have recourse to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored the return of the Romans, who as often drove back the invaders to their mountains and ancient limits beyond the walls. But these enterprizes served only to protract the miseries of the Britons; and the Romans now reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with these distant expeditions, acquainted the Britons, that they must no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the whole island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons like a helpless family, deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words: *To Aetius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons*; and after other lamentable complaints, said, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief: Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whose advice the Britons struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horfa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English channel, and their five countries comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time, Hengist and Horfa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know but little of its

* See the Introduction.

1. Cornwall & Westshire
2. H. 114
Hengist & Horfa so much of Sweden as west of Gylfing
Hengist & Horfa called like a Danian

history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a species of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within my design to relate the separate history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope in Austin's time supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was, that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by the clergy; and as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina king of the West Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, August 1st*.

Under all those disadvantages, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, or successors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred king of Kent paid at one time to Ina king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to 90,000l. sterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but superstitious Bede about the year 740, composed his church history of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. It must however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England when about the year 800, most of the Anglo-Saxons tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians in the year 827 he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany; Egbert had been obliged by state jealousies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the West Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land, or England; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a small tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838 at Winchester, his chief residence.

* This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome for the education of English youth, founded by Ina king of Wessex, under the name of *Rome-School*, but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this name, England had become a scene of blood and ravages, through the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they shew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin bishop of Winchester. At his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons (Athelstan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success, and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd. He still however kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he is thought to have been the most powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into desuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himself not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us himself, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings to general use in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in East India jewels; and William of Malmesbury says, that some of their gems were repositied in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Othier, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast, so far north as commonly the whale hunters use to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles with those barbarians. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions and barbarities. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three

voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a *thane* or *nobleman* of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear however to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and was generally successful, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of the Clergy. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vassals, he sitting at the helm. His reign however was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. He was succeeded in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest part of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000*l.* which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land tax in England. In the year 1002 they made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons out of England into Normandy a province of France, facing the south-east coast of England, at that time governed by its own princes, siled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great; but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, (so called for his great bodily strength) Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable, and his successor Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, who, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, was yet alive. Upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son of Goodwin, Earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England; to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Battle now stands, which took its name from it, near Hastings in Suffex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

I cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England since the first invasion of the Danes. Those barbarians seem

to have carried off with them almost all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for I perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100*l.* each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off; for we are told, that Harold, in his last victory over the Danes, regained as much treasure as twelve lusty men could carry off. We have indeed very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days; a palfrey cost 1*s.* an acre of land (according to bishop Fleetwood in his *Chronicon Pretiosum*) 1*s.* a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100*s.* but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1*s.* an ox was computed at 6*s.* a cow at 4*s.* a man at 3*l.* The board-wages of a child the first year, was 8*s.* The tenants of Shireburne were obliged, at their choice, to pay either 6*d.* or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to distinguish between the secular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. A great deal of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them at this day, the most valuable privileges of English subjects.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees*, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave for instance to one of his barons, the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. Wil-

* Four hides of land made one knight's-fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's-fee: and when Doom-day-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live stock upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour, and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the most material transactions of William's reign; and it may be farther observed, that by the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they established themselves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans by the conquest, gained much of the English land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewise gained much by the great increase of naval power, and multitude of ships, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave us an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared soon afterwards. England, by the conquest, gained likewise a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow seas seems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to those who possess the banks or coasts on both sides; and so to have strengthened the former title, by so long a coast as that of Normandy on one side, and of England on the other side of the Channel.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired),

and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and consequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter, but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Westminster-hall as it now stands, and added several works to the Tower, which he surrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne, first by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state, and they formed, as it were, a separate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry partly by force, and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed, and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length, the barons who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his succession; and finding

Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough advised to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir apparent to the kingdom; and thus exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself; by discharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of such towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the Clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted; which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his

neighbours; and the see of Rome was at the same time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the subjects absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject of his own dominions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; and, without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner; and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by his incursion into Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, to her seducing her sons, Henry (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time,) Richard, and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected him so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon in France, in the year 1189, and 57th year of his age.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87l. 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London's account, a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in building.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit with impunity, all

forts of disorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *assizes*, or administer justice to the people, as is practised at this day.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships, which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable or personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. To show the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York, and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. The pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedency begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion from his great courage, was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over; and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherously surprized by the duke of Austria; who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the Emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the fordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000*l.* of our present money.

Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform homage for the same; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid no more homage*.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox sold for three shillings, which answers to nine shillings of our money, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Weights and measures were now ordered to be the same all over the kingdom. Richard was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithstanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour; but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged

* It appears however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his subjects, consented to acknowledge the king of England, and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their sovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this advantage was given up by Richard I. *Vide* Lord Lyttleton's History of Henry II. vol. v. p. 220. 225. 8vo. edit.

him, in 1216, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burghers. John had scarcely signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority. The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuse a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common-council annually, as at present.

England was in a deplorable situation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a soft, pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privilege which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons, and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexpressible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated, and taken prisoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort, and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority; prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham, August 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knights and burghers, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house, and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England; but historians are not agreed in what manner the commons, before this time, formed any part of the English parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry during his absence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet to the struggles of this reign, the people in great measure owe the liberties of the present day. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are instances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a fresh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. But the

king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son prince Edward 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely disused, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which consisted (that the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats (See Rymer's *Fœdera*). Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the solemnity, and on the occasion 500 horses were let loose, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous mortmain act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving by will or *otherwise*, their estates to (those *so called*) religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown."

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the goldsmiths company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a fresh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000*l.* for the maintenance of what was called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter to the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland excepting the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat that England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king, but he soon became his favourite. He through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The queen, a furious ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many no-

the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the English army; but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England about six weeks after the battle of Cressy was fought, and remained a prisoner eleven years. Thus, Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince*, from his wearing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him; for he died, dispirited and obscure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51st of his reign.

No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the best and most illustrious kings that sat on the English throne. Having set his heart on the conquest of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection and security to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhausted his regal dominions; neither was his successor, when he mounted the throne, so powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign seems to have been much the same as in the preceding reign; and few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villainage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed, whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of reformation by his discourses, sermons, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks and stations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and was the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines, which had generally passed for certain and undisputed, during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propa-

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* He was also the first in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

ted by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and enquiring period.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn, and other victuals, were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent, and in many respects extremely unjustifiable; but it cannot justly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions, particularly a *poll tax*, and had abundant reason to be discontented with the government.

Richard was not then above sixteen, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler the leader of the malecontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. This, with the seasonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the insurrection for that time; but it broke out with the most bloody effects in other parts of England, and though it was suppressed by making many examples of severity among the insurgents, yet the common people never afterwards lost sight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained those privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of those insurgents, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation; but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, son to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Trefilian, and, above all, Robert de Vere earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis* of Dublin and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard stooped in vain to the most ignoble measures to save them. They were attainted, and condemned to suffer as traitors. The chief justice Trefilian was hanged at Tyburn, but De la Pole, and the duke of Ireland escaped abroad, where they died in obscurity. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party

* The first who bore the title of Marquis in England.

was formed in England, the natural result of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed from France at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon after he is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no issue by either of his two marriages.

Henry the Fourth† son of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. Before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which had till then disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on an immense trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little surprising, that learning was at this time at a much lower pass in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me; or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." By the influence of the court and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the sessions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, parish priest of St. Olishe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and sheriffs of London.

Henry V. engaged in a contest with France which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been ravished from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poitiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of

T t 2.

† The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which I shall give in the original language, because of their singularity.

In the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge this reume of Englande, and the crown, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; as I that am descendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming from the gude king Henry therde and throge that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which reume was in paynt to be restore by default of governance, and endoyng of the gude lawes.

French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry however made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, 1422, the 34th year of his age, and 10th of his reign.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714 l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III.'s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507 l. so that the king had of surplus only 3,207 l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention these particulars, that the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greatest king in Europe were scarcely equal to the pension of a superannuated courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, she being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables at public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally during the siege of Compiègne, who burnt her alive for a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the first earl of Shrewsbury,

*Blanchelande married in this reign
died in 1465 in 1465
In time of Edward IV. 1461-1470
died of the plague in 1465*

and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's younger son; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with a most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a professed enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he professed the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament upon this being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St. Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern

troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to observe, that this civil war was carried on with greater animosity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married, Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deemed himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the Duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great shew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now settled on the throne, was guilty of the utmost cruelty to all the Lancastrian party, whom he put to death, whenever he could find them, so that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was descended from John Beaufort the eldest son of the earl of Somerset, who was the eldest son of John of Gaunt, by his last wife Catherine Swineford, but born in adultery. This impediment, however, was afterwards removed both by the pope and by the parliament, and the descendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The last lord, John, duke of Somerset, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond son of the widow of Henry V. by Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman whom she so far descended as to marry; and their son was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.), who, at the time I treat of, lived in France, to secure himself from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may see, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the smallest claim in blood (even supposing the illegitimacy of his ancestors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable situation. The king was immersed in expensive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men; who, to support their extravagances, became pensioners to the French king. The parliament seemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed on scaffolds; and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-second of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baltardize her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV's friends, and by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth-field, in which Richard after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

There can scarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by historians. He was exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppressions he abolished, and was a father to the common people. He founded the society of Heralds; an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During his reign, short as it was, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than seventy-two different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the fu-

perintendency of English commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to, or exported from thence.

Though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters, as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houses of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his reign upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. The despotic court of star-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude by the great supplies and benevolences they afforded him, and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regarded its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished in England.

Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was possessed of 1,800,000l. sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him subsidies for foreign alliances, which he intended not to pursue.

I have already mentioned the vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII's reign. His excessive love of money and avarice was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West-Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus, whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he set out upon the discovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a passage of thirty-three days, and took possession of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry however made some amends by encouraging Cabot a Venetian, who discovered the main land of North-America in 1498; and we may observe to the praise of this king, that sometimes in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprizes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced before Henry's death; an instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week, for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also, for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight persons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of seven horses yearly, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horse 2l. 7s. 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$ yearly, money being still $1\frac{1}{4}$ times as weighty as our modern silver coin. Wheat was that year no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which answers

to 5s. of our money, consequently it was about seven times as cheap as at present; so that had all other necessaries been equally cheap, she could have lived as well as on 126ol. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at present.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but early in his reign he gave himself also entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolsey, who was the son of a butcher at Ipswich, educated at Oxford, and made dean of Lincoln by Henry VII. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England; and Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, "of the Seven Sacraments," about the year 1521, for which the Pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I shall not say, how far on this occasion he might be influenced by scruples of conscience, or aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this process, ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stript of his immense power and possessions.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation. Henry never could have effected this important measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner, his wishes, however unreasonable, being too readily complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliaments. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry, by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he scarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was queen Catharine Par, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscu-

ously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th year of his reign.

The state of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, which is another name for learning itself. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king instead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome.

The reader is to observe in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vast relief they had from abbeys and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation, which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will, for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognised the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her husband lord Guildford Dudley son to the duke of Northumberland, who also suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes, and all ranks, that suffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner bishop of London, and Gardiner bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her protestant subjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, and the chief praise of her reign is, that by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops, which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances, both at home and abroad. The Roman Catholic was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and she soon conquered all difficulties. Even to mention every glorious action of her reign, would far exceed my bounds; I shall therefore here only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprizing facility; for in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malecontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had been often promised a safe and an honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

The same Philip, who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She sometimes supported the protestants of France, against their persecuting princes and the Catholics; and she sometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made use of the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans,

under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. No reader can be so uninformed as to be ignorant of the consequences, that the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and that the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and that few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hoilanders from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independence upon Spain; and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures taken from the Spaniards into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

The above, form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She crushed the catholics in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East-India company received its first formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vasco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen. The severe statutes against the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which many suffered death, must be condemned.

We can scarcely require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the long inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been occasionally exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor; and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigour. James's first attempt of great consequence was to effect an union be-

tween England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason.

The obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince are great; and, in fact, he laid the foundations of great national advantages; but he and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price, made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay such a sum, and instituted a new order of knights baronets which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical casuists, in which he proved himself more of a theologian than a prince, and in 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his design. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon discharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the same time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raised to be first minister and earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary, as is said, to a solemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands: and at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that had he lived, he would have discarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England; and Mr. Middleton at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Hertfordshire by means of pipes which is now called the *New River*.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria. He seems at first to have been but a cold lover; and he quarrelled with, and sent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. But she soon acquired a great ascendancy over him; for she was high-spirited and artful, and disdained and disliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian, and arbitrary education.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age, justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by

many of the merchants and members of the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resented those proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raised various taxes without authority of Parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute, published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and punished with so much rigour, as excited an almost universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the government rendered still more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to persecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England, in August 1640, where Charles was so ill-served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being sincere in observing the terms, and Charles discovering that some of their great men had offered to throw themselves under the protection of the French king, he raised a fresh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the house of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with so bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpose, that it did him no service; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to rise in their demands. He had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been a leading member of the opposition to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously in carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of public detestation. As lord president of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister and privy-counsellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. He was, in consequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament for the future security of the liberty of the subject, which established particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an almost universal discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where great quantities of blood were spilt; and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured the Catholics out of hatred to the English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, January 4, 1642, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but, they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and the accused members into its protection. The trainbands were raised, and the mobs were so unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkshire, where he raised an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the house of commons, might raise in and about London.

The parties who opposed and supported the King were now committed.—A large portion of the Nobility and Gentry, aided by an equal proportion of the landed interest, attached themselves to the Royal cause. That of the parliament was supported by the trading towns and corporations, but principally by the city of London.—The first battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickshire on the 23d October, 1642, in which both parties claimed the Victory.—This unhappy civil war continued with various success for near three years; till Cromwell and Fairfax taking the principal command in the parliamentary army, gave such a turn to affairs as brought the king to the lowest distress.—A variety of negotiations were now set on foot, which however terminated in bringing the king before a court of justice appointed by his enemies, where being found guilty, his head was cut off before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and some have supposed, that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that had he been restored to his throne he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reason to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the last, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinstated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithstanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the course of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes. The surviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England, Henry duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration, the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the Duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed most amazing abilities for government. They

omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by sea. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated subordination to a republic, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, opprobriously driving all the members, about an hundred, out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he must encounter insurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity.

His wants at last led him into the error of taking part with France against Spain, in hopes that the rich Spanish prizes would supply him with ready money. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their assistance from the Spaniards, he took possession of it. Finding that his usurpation gave as much discontent to his own party, as terror to the loyalists, he had thoughts of new-modelling the constitution, and actually erected a house of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his secretary Thurloe's, and other state papers, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was now planned and established, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant schemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increase their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for some time before his death, he affected great mag-

nificence in his person, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many instances interposed effectually in favour of the Protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronized, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the person of Cooper an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praise, and his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of administration; so he paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver as protector, sufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to spirit and parts in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity; and Charles II. with the general concurrence of the nation was called to the throne.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seemed to have a real desire to promote his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are first mentioned. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the English under the auspices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In short, Charles knew, and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence; failings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences, is a proof of the increase of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expences. He has been severely censured for selling Dunkirk to the French king to supply his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. sterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connections with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the sale of Dunkirk; a man of extensive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most of his other ministers, but whom he sacrificed to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great resolution and spirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's misapplication of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroyed several capital ships of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States General, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer. This was an indefensible step; and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and

had almost proved fatal to that republic, for in this war, the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000*l.* which was paid him.

In some things Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days after they were opened again. Great rigour and severity were exercised against the Presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as England.

In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the Catholics with a design to murder the king, and introduce their religion by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Strafford, Coleman secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and others were publicly executed on evidences, supposed now to have been perjured, by those who will have the whole plot to be a fiction. The queen herself escaped with difficulty, the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced, as it is said, that the whole was an imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the Duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers.

Another plot was now fabricated, which was alike productive of blood with the former. The excellent lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the duke of York's succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death, and the king set his foot upon the neck of opposition. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shaftesbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth and have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters, are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been sufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the opposition to his government. The heads of the latter were presbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been greatly instrumental in the civil war against the late king, and the usurpations that followed. They had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures; and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of the old royalists, and the dissipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleasure. The presbyterians, however, availed themselves of their credit, in the early part of his reign when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament such a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneasy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty, and protestantism, now exist in the English government. On the other hand, they seem to have carried their jealousy of a catholic successor too far;

and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been satisfied with the legal restraints and disabilities which Charles offered to impose upon his successor. This gave such a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almost masters of the laws and liberties of England; and they governed in an absolute and arbitrary manner, supported by the clergy's preaching up the old doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance, and the flattering addresses presented from many persons advancing the prerogative of the crown to the most extravagant height.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witness the style of their sermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved, patronized, and understood the arts, more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and, as such, had assumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the west of England, exhibiting a scene of barbarity scarcely ever known in this country, by the instrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with the doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court; he openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and punishing for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his test and protestant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter; and he at last embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their due rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the princess Anne, and her husband, George, prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who soon discovered that he expected the crown. James might still have reigned; but he was sur-

rounded with French emissaries, and others, equally ignorant of, and inimical to the constitution as settled in church and state. They secretly persuaded him to send his family to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in English history is termed *the Revolution*.

This short reign affords little matter for the national progress in its true interests. James is allowed, on all hands, to have understood them, and that, had it not been for his bigotry, and arbitrary principles, he would have been a most excellent king of England.

Had it not been for the baneful influence over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown frustrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages, which he could not otherwise have hoped for. Few were in the prince's secret, and when a convention of the states was called, there seemed reason to believe, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princess of Orange. Even then it was not done without long debates. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured: though the friends of liberty in general complained, that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, in a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of liberty, as a crown bestowed by the free voice of the people.

It was the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other respects had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was that year near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a strong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed against the government, which was hourly increased by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. The greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the Revolution interest, because, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by supporting that interest, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being supported in his war with France, but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryfwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen*, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards.

The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the 12th of June 1701. His death was hastened by a fall he had from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France on the eighth of March 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he seemed also sometimes to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he often favoured the tories.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next Protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded king William in the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, that still subsists, between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the Empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

The capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter, and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

In the course of the war, several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who

* She died of the small-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral, Sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramillies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners.

After the battle of Ramillies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognised Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering successes of the English, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea, yet that part of the war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace of England. At the same time, England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

These and many other internal disputes about the prerogative, the succession, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferment in the nation and parliament. The queen at first stuck close to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the Tories inclined to treat with France, put themselves at the head of the Whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents, according to their stations, received immense emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer dissembled, and the personal interest of the duchess of Marlborough, with the queen, began to be shaken by her own haughtiness.

As Lewis XIV. professed a readiness for peace, and sued earnestly for it, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his associate, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg (as some term it) and the then expected change of the ministry in England, saved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, "that the church was in danger," which, though groundless, had

great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed upon by both parties to try their strength in this man's case. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough, and the whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honour and interest of the nation were sacrificed to private court-intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, (a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactors,) and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been still more indefensible and shameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatoriness, if not bad faith of the English allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhausted state of the kingdom.

The queen was at this time in a critical situation. The whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and interest of the nation. The majority of the house of lords was of that party, but that of the house of commons was tories. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exercise of her prerogative she created twelve peers at one time, which secured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had, by some secret influence, which never has yet been discovered, and was even concealed from some of her ministers, inclined to call her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her ministers. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged hastily to dismiss her lord-treasurer; when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the first of August 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and thirteenth of her reign*.

* And with her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, son of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death, repaired to Rome, where he continued for some time, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and she left public measures in so indecisive a state, that, upon her death, the succession took place in terms of the act of settlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, son of the princess Sophia, grand daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the tory ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was sitting, voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years, which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known, and a very indefensible step. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the Tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover, rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The truth is, the whig ministry were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title; and George I. though a sagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States-general; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet near Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South-Sea scheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. One Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended on suspicion, but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life. There was some irregularity in the proceedings against him, and therefore the justice of the bishop's sentence has been questioned, though there is little or no reason to doubt, but sufficient proof of his guilt. So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September, 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hosier, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate fleets. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

Henry, his second son, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York March 28th, 1772, Charles married Louisa Maximilienne, born Sept. 21st, 1752, daughter of a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudern, in the Circle of Upper Saxony, and grand-daughter by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Aylebury.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an opposition in the house of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more lavish in granting money, and enormous subsidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave rise, by which it was reckoned that almost a million and a half was won and lost; and for the great alteration of the system of Europe, by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund for diminishing the national debt, is likewise owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state of manufactures began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died, and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the accession of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, could another person have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the house of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more.

His pacific system brought him, however, into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, and passing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1736, increased the minority in the house of commons to 130, some of whom were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they attacked the minister with great strength of argument, and with great eloquence. In justice to Walpole, it should be observed, that he filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration.

Queen Carolina, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister; but she died November 20th, 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the provision to which his birth entitled him; and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen that Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West-Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon

Carthagena, in which some thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means of carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February 1742 was created earl of Oxford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743, and his not suffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies sought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, were thought by some to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his son Charles, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped, with a few followers, in a frigate to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is necessary, before we relate the true cause of this enterprize, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt of Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Peterburgh and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain, so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act against the French, till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke

attempted to raise the siege, but by the coldness of the Austrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, and misconduct somewhere else, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure (about a million sterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortrefs of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1745, when the Pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. I shall only add, to what hath been said of the progress and suppression of this rebellion, that it spread too great an alarm through England. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party, (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a deep scheme of distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not restore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II. was, by the credit of his majesty, and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maastricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the command of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished, under rear-admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English, during the war, may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace.

Preliminaries for peace were signed in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the basis of which was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent, for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who sold out even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.* the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the assiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had supplied the Spanish West-Indies with Negroes. In March, 1750, died, universally lamented,

his royal highness Frederic prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old stile was abolished, and the new stile established, to the vast conveniency of the subject. This was done by sinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the subject, is a point that is still very questionable.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopt and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8,000 of their best sailors were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ships of war; for about two years after, near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciously sent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quesne; but major-general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by some circumstances, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galissoniere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakeney. The English were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at those events. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

It was about this time, that Mr. Pitt was placed as secretary of state, at the head of the administration. He had been long known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The mis-carriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast success of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under colonel Clive, are almost incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixar, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the present amazing extent of riches and territory, which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September, 1757; and admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back on the 6th of October to St. Helen's, without the general making an attempt to land on the coast of France. He was tried and acquitted without the public murmuring, so great an opinion had the people of the minister; who, to do him justice, did not suffer a man or a ship belonging to the English army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, merely because his Britannic majesty refused to wink at their encroachments in America, the English parliament, in gratitude, voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms; and the French under the duke of Richlieu, took possession of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a scarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended by the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia; in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English every where performed wonders; and were every where victorious, but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious perhaps in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The English bore the expences of the war with cheerfulness, and applauded Mr. Pitt's administration, because their glorious successes in every other part of the globe demonstrated that he was in earnest. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August, 1758, reduced and demolished Louisbourg, in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quene, in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English: acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English re-

ceived at Ticonderago, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pocock had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the *Bien Aimé*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they ran her on shore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occasion, and the English only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the third of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry. The loss of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the English only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Goree on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of the French Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed with far superior force by Montcalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalm; general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier-general (now marquis) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. It is to the honour of the minister, Mr. Amherst in this expedition was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain: but, on the 18th of August, 1759, Admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the straits of Gibraltar, took *Le Centaure* of 74, *Le Temeraire* of 74, and *Le Modette* of 74 guns; and burnt *L'Ocean* of 80, and *Le Redoubtable* of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night, and on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Damet, in the bay of Biscay. The *Formidable*, a French man of

war of 80 guns, was taken; the *Thésée* of 74, and the *Superbe* of 70 guns, were sunk; and the *Soleil Royal* of 80, and the *Heros* of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the *Juste* of 70 perished in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns over board; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost on this occasion, the *Effex* of 64, and the *Resolution* of 74 guns which ran ashore in the chace. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three sloops of war alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecisive as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again shewed dispositions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British ministry, to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly, (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart) full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was just rather than generous; and in matters of economy, either in his state or his household, he was willing to connive at abuses, if they had the sanction of law and custom. By this means, those mismanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even under-clerks in offices amassed fortunes ten times greater than their legal salaries or perquisites could raise. He was not very accessible to conversation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's administration with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his ministers. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his person tall and comely, and at the time of his accession Great Britain was in the highest degree of reputation and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also

calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the important fortrefs of Pondicherry, in the East Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West Indies still continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions, and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. He urged his reasons for this measure with his usual energy; asserting, that "this was the time for humbling the whole house of Bourbon;" and that if this opportunity was let slip, it might never be recovered. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, said, that "as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was no longer allowed to guide." He, therefore, resigned the seals, and lord Temple also gave up the post which he held in the administration. But the next day, the king settled a pension of three thousand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives.

It was at length found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pocock, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the *Hermione*, a large Spanish register ship bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loss of the *Havannah*, with the ships and treasures there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, under general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the *Trinidad*, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened to their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the British arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for me to decide. It certainly em-

* I. was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt resigned the seals.

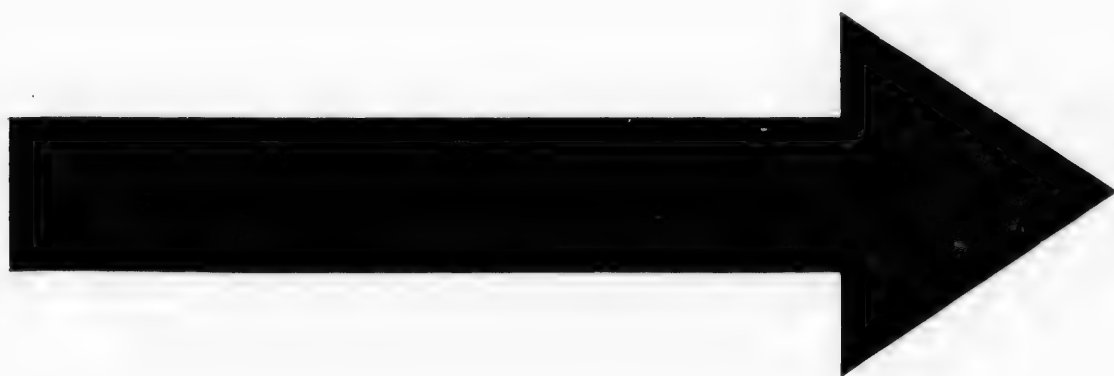
barrasted his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. The defections of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the eighteenth been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty, the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; also the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a small district round it,) was surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration, of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting to the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engrossed the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies, was dictated by the directors of the English company; which restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and countermarches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame; but at the expence of 30 millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

The war to which a period was now put, was the most brilliant, and distinguished with the most glorious events in the British annals. No national prejudices, nor party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no less astonishing to Europe, than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. And from this



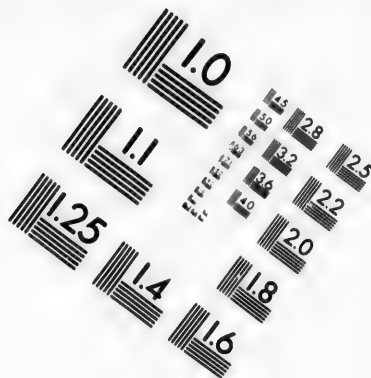
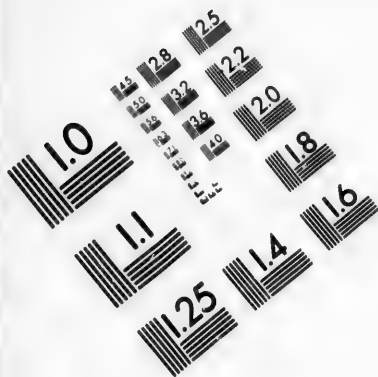
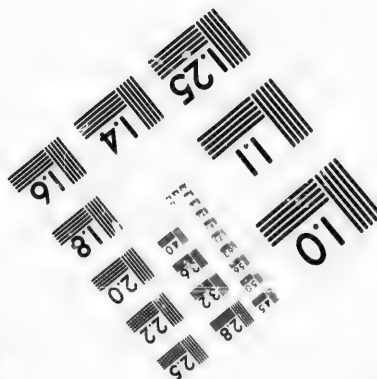
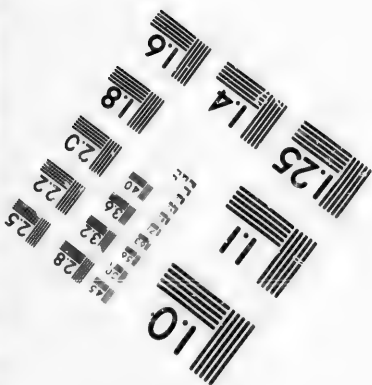
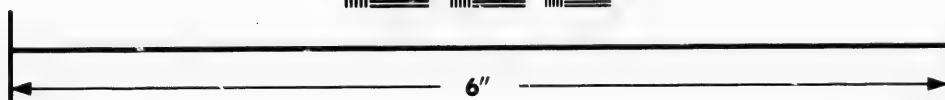
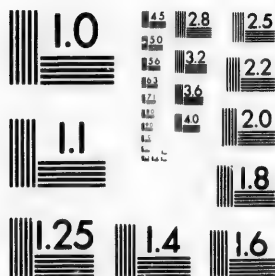
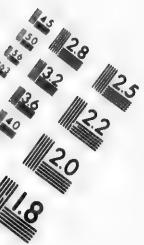


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period various causes contributed to occasion a great spirit of discontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's messengers entered the house of John Wilkes, Esq. member of parliament for Aylesbury, and seized his person, by virtue of a warrant from the secretary of state, which directed them to seize 'the authors, printers, and publishers, of a seditious and treasonable paper, intitled the North Briton, No. 45.' The papers published under this title, severely arraigned the conduct of the administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. This proceeding was followed by a persecution of Mr. Wilkes in a variety of forms. In the courts of law the warrant was declared to be illegal, but he was expelled the house of Commons, which (with the house of Lords) voided the North Briton, No. 45, to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel.—Popular tumults were now frequent; and the character of Mr. Wilkes seemed to rise in the public opinion in proportion to the degree of asperity with which he was prosecuted.—Few circumstances have arisen in the English History, which have so long and so generally engaged the minds of all descriptions of the people; and few administrations have been so unpopular as at this time. Sundry other persons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publishing the North Briton; but some of them obtained verdicts against the king's messengers for false imprisonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's administration, an act was passed, said to have been framed by him, which was productive of the most pernicious consequences to Great Britain; "An Act for laying a *stamp-duty* in the British colonies of North America," which received the royal assent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had also been made, under pretence of preventing smuggling in America; but which in effect so cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and to the mother-country. As soon as it was known in North America that the *stamp-act* was passed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own representatives in their provincial assemblies, they loudly asserted, that the British parliament, in which they were not represented, had no right to tax them. On the other hand it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reason and justice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. 'These children of our own planting,' said Mr. George Grenville, speaking of the Americans, 'nourished by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence, which we lie under?'

When the *stamp-act*, as printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were committed, with a view of preventing the operations of this act; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till that act should be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies also established committees from every colony to correspond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and appointed deputies from these committees to meet in CONGRESS at New York. They assembled together in that city, in October 1765, and this was the first congress held on the American continent.

These commotions in America occasioned so great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; and some of his lordship's friends succeeded to

the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was passed for repealing the American stamp-act. This was countenanced and supported by the new ministry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet spoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He also asserted, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the stamp-act was repealed, an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in administration but a short time; though during their continuance in power several public measures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the security of their liberties. But on the 30th of July 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord-privy-seal; but that eminent statesman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons, greatly lessened his weight and influence. Indeed this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and sundry changes followed. Mr. Charles Townshend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for some time a considerable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was supplied by lord North, who afterwards became first lord of the treasury, and obtained a great ascendancy in the administration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The parliament had just before been dissolved; and on his arrival in London, though he still lay under a sentence of outlawry, he offered himself a candidate to represent that city in the ensuing parliament. He was received with loud acclamations, and the generality appeared greatly interested in his favour, but he lost his election; only 1247 liverymen voted for him. His want of success did not discourage him, for he immediately offered himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. He was attended by an amazing number of people to Brentford, the place of election. The two other candidates had large fortunes, and great connections in the county; they had represented it for several years, and were supported by the whole interest of the court. Mr. Wilkes, however, being considered as a man who had been unjustly and unconstitutional persecuted by the government, was elected by a great majority, on the 28th of March. The extreme joy of the populace at this event, occasioned them to commit some irregularities in the city of London, on the evening of the day of election: and so great were the apprehensions of the court on this occasion, that on the following day orders were given to the guards on duty at St. James's, to be in readiness at the beat of drum, to march to suppress any riot that might happen. In May following, Mr. Wilkes having voluntarily surrendered himself to the court of King's bench, was committed to the King's bench prison. Soon after this, a number of persons having assembled in St. George's fields, near that prison, in hopes of seeing Mr. Wilkes, some disorder ensued, and the soldiers were rashly ordered to fire among the mob. Several persons were killed, and in particular one William Allen, who was singled out, pursued by one of the soldiers, and shot near his father's house, in a manner which the occasion could in no respect justify. This affair made a great noise; and the pains taken by the minister to support and vindicate the military, increased the odium of the transaction. On the 8th of June, Mr. Wilkes's outlawry was reversed, and on the 18th of the same month, sentence was passed on him, that, for the republication of the North Briton, No. 45, he should pay a fine of five hundred pounds, and be imprisoned ten months; and for publishing the Essay on Wo-

man, that he should likewise pay five hundred pounds and be imprisoned twelve months, to be computed from the expiration of the term of the former imprisonment. He afterwards petitioned the House of Commons, complaining of the injustice and illegality of the proceedings against him; but the house voted, that his complaints were frivolous and groundless. He was also again expelled, for being the author of some prefatory remarks on a letter which he published, written by one of the secretaries of state to the chairman of the quarter-sessions at Lambeth, in which the secretary had recommended to the magistrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's fields, calling in the assistance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there should be occasion.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was prosecuted, only increased his popularity, which was also much augmented by the spirit and firmness which on every occasion he displayed. Before his expulsion, he had been chosen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February 1769, he was re-elected, at Brentford, member for the county of Middlesex, without opposition. The return having been made to the house, it was resolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that session, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was declared void, and a new writ issued for another. He was once more unanimously re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the house of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrell, vacated the seat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. Though the whole weight of court interest was thrown into the scale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared against him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrell only 296. Notwithstanding this, two days after the election, it was resolved in the House of Commons, that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned a knight of the shire for the county of Middlesex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inserting that of colonel Luttrell in its place. The latter accordingly took his seat in parliament: but this was thought so gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general discontent, and loud complaints were made against it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's imprisonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was chosen one of the Sheriffs for London and Middlesex; and the same year a remarkable contest happened between the city of London and the House of Commons. Several Printers had been ordered to attend that house, being charged with having inserted in their news-papers, accounts of the speeches of members of parliament, contrary to a standing order of the house. One of these Printers, who had refused to attend the summons of the house, was apprehended by a messenger of the House of Commons in his own house; whereupon he immediately sent for a constable, and the messenger was carried before the lord mayor at the mansion-house, where the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver also then were. The deputy serjeant at arms also attended, and demanded, in the name of the speaker, that both the messenger and the printer should be delivered up to him. This was refused by the lord-mayor, who asked, for what crime, and upon what authority, the messenger had arrested the printer? The messenger answered, he had done it by warrant from the speaker. It was then asked, if the warrant had been backed by a city magistrate? Which being answered in the negative, the warrant was demanded, and after much altercation produced; and its invalidity being argued by the printer's counsel, the three magistrates present discharged him from confinement. His complaint for an assault and false imprisonment being then heard, and the facts proved and admitted,

the messenger was asked for bail, which the serjeant having refused to give, a warrant for his commitment to prison was made out, and signed by the lord-mayor and the two aldermen; but the serjeant then offered bail, which was accepted. The consequence of this transaction was, that a few days after, the lord-mayor Crosby and alderman Oliver, members of the house of commons, were committed prisoners to the Tower for their share in this business, by the authority of the house; but they avoided, as much as possible, any new contest with Mr. Wilkes. That gentleman was afterwards again chosen member for the county of Middlesex in the subsequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his seat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord-mayor of the city of London; and hath since been elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's administration, at Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders and resolutions of the house of commons respecting his election for the county of Middlesex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that house, "as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it should be remembered, that in consequence of his manly and spirited contests with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to such warrants, and to the unlawful seizure of an Englishman's papers by state messengers.

After the repeal of the stamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the British parliament, though besides the experience of the ill-success of the stamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the disposition of the colonists, said in the house of commons, in 1767, 'It is a fact which this house ought to be apprized of in all its extent, that the people of America, universally, unitedly, and unalterably, are resolved not to submit to any internal tax imposed upon them by any legislature, in which they have not a share by representatives of their own election.' He added, 'this claim must not be understood, as though it were only the pretences of party-leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the visions of speculative enthusiasts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which must subside; as though it were only temporary or partial—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of business in the country.' The event verified the justice of these observations; yet the same year, an act was passed laying certain duties on paper, glass, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies for the purpose of raising a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal these duties, excepting that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repealing the other duties answered no purpose, while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a fresh subject of contest between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the East India company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty-free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans, as a scheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. Three ships laden with tea arrived in the port of Boston in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded them, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes of tea into the sea, without doing any other damage, or of-

fering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments, and the masters of the tea-vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the persons in the service of government there were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. And in South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where it perished.

These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31st of March, 1774, an act was passed for removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed 'for better regulating the government in the province of Massachusetts's Bay.' The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the counsellors, judges, and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed which was considered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconstitutional, empowering the governor of Massachusetts's Bay to send persons accused of crimes there to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after an act was likewise passed 'for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec,' which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legislative council was to be established for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleasure; and his Majesty's Canadian Roman Catholic subjects were intitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were also established in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the Catholic clergy were invested with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed, it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the King was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, as he should think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended by the act thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country.

The measures of government respecting America had so universally exasperated the colonists, that provincial or town-meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, from the last day of the month of August, 1774, until the Boston-port-bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts's Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. Other transactions succeeded; and the flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which stretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congress, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who represented the several English colonies of New Hampshire (2), Massachusetts's Bay (4), Rhode Island and

Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jersey (4), Pennsylvania (7); the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy and sent deputies to the Congress. They entered into an association, in which they bound themselves and their constituents, not to import into British America, from Great Britain or Ireland, any goods, wares, or merchandise whatsoever, from the first day of December following; nor to import any East India tea from any part of the world; nor to export any merchandise or commodity whatsoever to Great Britain, Ireland, or the West Indies, from the 10th of September, 1775, unless the act for stopping the port and blocking up the harbour of Boston, that for altering the charter and government of the province of Massachusetts Bay, the Quebec act, the acts by which duties were imposed on any commodities imported into America, and some other acts, which they enumerated, were repealed.

They also drew up a petition to the King, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his Majesty to grant them peace, liberty and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved, that another congress should be held in the same place, on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time: and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies as soon as possible, for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, some measures were proposed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a stop to the commotions which unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the whole system of American measures. He also made a motion, for immediately recalling the troops from Boston. He represented this as a measure which should be instantly adopted; urging, that an hour then lost, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged, that the present situation of the troops rendered them and the Americans continually liable to events, which would cut off the possibility of a reconciliation; but that this conciliatory measure would be well timed; and as a mark of affection and good-will on our side, would remove all jealousy and apprehension on the other, and instantaneously produce the happiest effects to both. His lordship's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 against 18; as was also a bill which he brought in soon after for settling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an accommodation, met also with a similar fate. The number of his majesty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to some of the provincial assemblies: but it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his majesty to be laid before the parliament: whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being said, that the American congress was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war. The Americans having collected some military stores at the town of Concord in New England, general Gage, governor of the colony, sent the grenadiers and light infantry of the army, to destroy them. The detachment consisting of about 900 men, embarked in boats at Boston, on the night preceding, and having landed at a place called Phipps's farm, they proceeded with great silence and expedition towards Concord. When they arrived at Lexington, they found a company of militia, of about 100 men, mustered near a meeting-house. It was just before sun-rise when the British troops came in sight of them; whereupon an officer in the van called out, "Disperse, you rebels, throw down your arms, and disperse," the soldiers at the same time running up with loud huzzas. Some scattering shots were first fired, and immediately succeeded by a general discharge, by which eight of the American militia were killed, and several wounded: but it was said by some of the regulars, that the provincials fired first, though the contrary was testified upon oath by a number of the Americans. After this the detachment advanced to Concord, and proceeded to execute their commission, by rendering three pieces of cannon unserviceable, burning some new gun carriages, a number of carriage wheels, and throwing into the river a considerable quantity of flour, gunpowder, musket-balls, and other articles. In the mean time, a small body of the militia returned towards the bridge which they had lately passed; and, upon this movement, the light infantry retired on the Concord side of the river, and began to pull up the bridge; but upon the near approach of the militia, the soldiers immediately fired, and killed two men. The Americans returned the fire, and a skirmish ensued at the bridge, in which the English troops appear to have been under some disadvantage, and were forced to retreat, having several men killed and wounded, and a lieutenant and some others taken. About this time, the country people began to rise more generally against the king's troops, and to attack them on all quarters; skirmish succeeded upon skirmish; and a continued, though scattering and irregular fire, was supported through the whole of a long and very hot day. In the march back to Lexington, a distance of six miles, the troops were extremely annoyed, and it is probable, that the whole of this body of British troops would have been cut off, had not general Gage detached lord Percy in the morning, with sixteen companies of foot, and a body of marines, with two pieces of cannon, to support them, who arrived at Lexington by the time the others had returned from Concord. This powerful reinforcement obliged the provincials for some time to keep their distance: but as soon as the king's troops resumed their march, the attacks, as the country people became more numerous, grew in proportion more violent, and the danger was continually augmenting, until they arrived, about sun-set, at Charles-Town, from whence they passed over directly to Boston, extremely harassed and fatigued. The loss of the king's troops amounted to 65 killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including killed and wounded.

As this was the first action in this unhappy civil contest, we have been the more particular in relating the circumstances with which it was attended. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775 as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a large paper

currency for its payment. They assumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were securities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with any kind of provisions; and to render this order the more effectual, stoppt all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surpris'd the garrisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side: and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental congress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts Bay was dissolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, assistants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

The town of Boston had now been for some time blocked up by the provincials: but the post of Charles-Town, which is separated from Boston only by a river, had hitherto been neglected by both parties. The Americans at last thought this post necessary for them, whether they should chuse to act on the offensive or defensive. They accordingly made the necessary preparations, and sent a body of men at night to throw up works upon Bunker's hill, a high ground that lies just within the isthmus, or neck of land that joins the peninsula to the continent. The party carried on their works with such extraordinary order and silence, that, though the peninsula was surrounded with ships of war, they were not heard during the night, and used such incredible dispatch in the execution, that they had a small but strong redoubt, considerable entrenchments, and a breast-work of considerable length, which was in some parts cannon-proof, far advanced towards completion, by the break of day. The sight of the works was the first notice that alarmed the Lively man of war early in the morning; and her guns called the town, camp, and fleet, to behold a sight which seemed little less than a prodigy. Upon this discovery, a heavy and continual fire of cannon, howitzers, and mortars, was carried on upon the works of the provincials, from the ships, from floating batteries, and from the top of Cop's-hill in Boston: but the Americans bore this severe fire with great firmness, and appeared to go on with their business as if no enemy had been near, nor any danger in the service. About noon, general Gage caused a considerable body of troops to be embarked, under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot, to drive the provincials from their works. This detachment, together with a reinforcement which it afterwards received, amounted in the whole to more than 2000 men. The attack was begun by a most severe fire of cannon and howitzers, under which the troops advanced very slowly towards the enemy, and halted several times, to afford an opportunity to the artillery to ruin the works, and to put the Americans into confusion. The Americans, on their part, sustained a severe and continual fire of small arms and artillery with remarkable firmness and resolution. They did not return a shot, until the king's forces had approached almost to the works, when a most dreadful fire took place, by which numbers of the British troops fell, and many of their officers. They were thereupon thrown into disorder; but being rallied, and again brought to the charge, they attacked the works of the Americans with fixed bayonets, and forced them in every quarter.

Many of the provincials were destitute of bayonets, and their ammunition is said to have been expended; however, a number of them fought desperately within the works, from which they were not driven without great difficulty, and they at length retreated slowly over Charles-Town neck. Charles-Town itself, during the action, was it is said, wantonly, or unnecessarily set on fire in several places, and burnt to the ground, by carcasses thrown from the ships, and the King's troops. This was the first settlement made in the colony, and was considered as the mother of Boston; that town owing its birth and nurture to emigrants from the former: it contained about 400 houses, and had a great trade. The loss of the king's troops in the action at Bunker's hill amounted to 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers.

After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charles-town neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, written in a very animated strain, in which they styled themselves "the Representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. A second petition to the king was also voted by the congress, in which they earnestly solicited his majesty to adopt some method of putting a stop to the unhappy contest between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was presented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department; but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. An address now also was published by the congress to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada, was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of considerable military skill, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier-general. He first made himself master of Chamblée, a small fort, in which he found 120 barrels of gunpowder, and other military stores. He afterwards took the fort of St. John's, in which was a garrison of about 500 regulars, together with some Canadian volunteers; and the town of Montreal also surrendered to him on the 13th of November, 1775. In the mean time colonel Benedict Arnold undertook to march with a body of Americans from Boston to Quebec, by a route which had hitherto been untried; and considered as impracticable, which must of necessity be attended with extreme fatigue. They had thick woods, deep swamps, difficult mountains and precipices alternately to encounter; and were at times obliged to cut their way for miles together through the thickets. After overcoming innumerable difficulties, they arrived in Canada, where Arnold published an address to the people of that province, signed by general Washington, in which they were invited to join with the other colonies in an indissoluble union, and to range themselves under the standard of general liberty. A similar publication had before been issued by Montgo-

mery. Arnold appeared before Quebec on the 9th of November, and soon after joined Montgomery, on whom the chief command of course devolved. General Carleton, the governor, employed every effort to repel the assailants. On the 31st of December Montgomery attempted to gain possession of the place by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was also dangerously wounded, about 60 of their men were likewise killed and wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblée, and St. John's were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embarked for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "Free and Independent States;" that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "the United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ships having sustained considerable loss, and a twenty-eight gun ship, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and seamen. However, a much more important and successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, so that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother Vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were invested with a power, under the title of "Commissioners for granting Peace to the Colonies," of granting pardons to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long Island, near New York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. General Howe first landed on Staten Island, where he met with no opposition; but early in the morning of the 22d of August, a descent was made by the British troops upon Long Island, and towards noon about fifteen thousand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans; by their superior skill and discipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommoda-

tion; and the American passes were far from being properly secured. Some actions and skirmishes happened between them during several successive days; in which the British troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves so much overpowered, they at length resolved to quit the island, and general Washington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he displayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp and their different works, and with their baggage, stores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-side, embarked, and passed over a long ferry to New York, with such extraordinary silence and military address, that the British army did not perceive the least motion, and were surprised in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and seeing the last of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger.

But the success of the royal army was far from bringing the Americans to submission. When some overtures, tending towards a reconciliation, were a few days after made by lord Howe, he was answered by a committee from the congress, "that the colonies now considered themselves as independent states, and were settling, or had settled, their government accordingly; and that, therefore a return to the domination of Great Britain was not now to be expected; but they were willing to enter into any treaty with Great Britain which might be beneficial to both countries." Soon after this, the Americans abandoned the city of New York to the king's troops, who took possession of it with little opposition, and found therein a large quantity of ordnance and military stores.

It would take up too much room in this work to enter into a minute detail of all the transactions in the war between Great Britain and the American colonies, though we have already been somewhat copious upon the subject, on account of the interesting nature of this great contest to the inhabitants of both countries. But we must now content ourselves with slightly mentioning the most remarkable subsequent events. After the surrender of New York, the royal army obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans: as at the White Plains, taking Fort-Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of stores, which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-island; and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts taken, and the time of the greatest part of their army to serve, was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well clothed and disciplined army pursuing. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the contest; but Providence directed otherwise; and the general's orders from home are said to have prevented him. This delay gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surprise of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recrossed the river to resume his former post at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning to execute it; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an in-

dication of their going to rest, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position. By these two events, accomplished with but a small force, the Americans deranged all the plans of the British general; made him draw in his troops to a closer compass, to protect his magazines at Brunswick; and by the efforts of their general, (whose military character was now highly estimated), they closed the campaign with advantage, which but a few days before had threatened the country with destruction. The Americans had also fitted out a great number of privateers, which took many prizes; and, on the other hand, not a few of the American vessels fell into the hands of the English, but they were generally much less valuable.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by the way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms October 17, 1777.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; they made themselves masters of several forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and some others, the British troops had wantonly set fire to houses and towns, particularly Esopus, and carried on the war in a manner not usual among civilized nations. These devastations greatly increased the aversion of the Americans to the British government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was so ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved so ill, that their loss did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother country and the colonies. They were invested with certain powers for this purpose by act of parliament. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain. The congress refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity. At the close of the year, Georgia was invaded by the king's troops, the town of Savannah taken, and the whole province at length reduced.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occasioned hostilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 17th of June, 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Port*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the French of 32, besides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being taken on either side, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the English fleet, because a decisive victory had not been obtained over the French; at last the blame was thrown upon sir Hugh Palliser, vice admiral of the blue, who was charged in a news paper with misconduct, and disobedience of orders. Though no regular accusation was brought against him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated against him. This the admiral declined, which gave rise to some altercation between them; and sir Hugh Palliser afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he was himself a member) articles of accusation against admiral Keppel, though ^{five} many months after the action, he had continued to act under him, and professed the greatest respect to him. A mode of conduct so extraordinary, was very generally and severely censured; but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. Soon after, a memorial was presented to the king by the duke of Bolton, signed by twelve admirals, among whom was lord Hawke, remonstrating against the injustice of holding a court-martial on admiral Keppel, upon the accusation of an inferior officer, "after forty years of meritorious service, and a variety of actions in which he had exerted eminent courage and conduct, by which the honour and power of this nation, and the glory of the British flag, had been maintained and increased in various parts of the world." When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the most honourable manner; and sir Hugh Palliser's charge against him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." Some of the most distinguished officers in the service and who had been in the action, gave the most decisive evidence in the admiral's favour, and expressed their sense of his great merit in the strongest terms: and, after his acquittal, both houses of parliament also voted their thanks to him for his services to the nation. But

sir Hugh Palliser being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly composed from some of the captains of his own division, he likewise was acquitted; his disobedience to the admiral's orders was considered as being occasioned by the disabled state of his ship; a slight censure only was passed on him for not making the state of his ship known to the admiral; and his conduct in other respects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the East Indies also an engagement happened between some English ships of war under the command of Sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of Mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the course of the same year, the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themselves masters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained possession of the islands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Estaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a considerable body of French troops, to the assistance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the British troops at Savannah, under the command of General Prevost. But the latter defended themselves so well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loss, and D'Estaing soon after totally abandoned the coast of America. And at the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war, and merchant-ships, were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war against England; one of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged was the siege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets seemed for a time to ride almost triumphant in the British channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and after parading for some time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January, 1780, sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the same admiral engaged near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largest Spanish ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men, was also blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previously thrown supplies into Gibraltar, and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of these actions were decisive, nor was any ship taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charlestown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August earl of Cornwallis obtained a very

signal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken, besides seven pieces of brass cannon, a number of colours, and their ammunition-waggons. But on the 10th of July, *Monf. Ternay*, with a fleet consisting of seven ships of the line, besides frigates, and a large body of French troops, commanded by the count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, and landed 6000 men there. The American inhabitants congratulated the French general upon his arrival; and he assured them, that the king, his master, had sent him to the assistance of his good and faithful allies, the United States of America; and that the French troops were to act under the orders of general Washington, and would live with the Americans as their brethren.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier general in the royal service. Major André, who negotiated this desertion, and was concerting measures with him for betraying the important post of West-Point into the hands of the English, was taken in the American lines in his return to New York; and being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occasioned much discontent in the nation, and seemed to convince persons of all ranks of the necessity of public oeconomy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the close of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were present, who agreed to present petitions to the house of commons, stating the evils which the profuse expenditure of the public money occasioned, &c. Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances stated, but nothing important was effected: the ministry soon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diversity of sentiment occasioned some disunion among the popular leaders; the spirit which had appeared among the people by degrees subsided; and various causes at length conspired to bring the greatest part of the nation to a patient acquiescence in the measures of administration.

The middle of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; especially if it be considered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well understood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately passed "for relieving his majesty's subjects, professing the Romish religion, from certain penalties and impediments imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of sense, and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against Catholics were justly deemed too severe. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgences to Catholics in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several Catholics demolished, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of this act, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. They were chiefly Methodists, and bigoted Calvinists, in the lower ranks of life: many of them well-intentioned persons, but not sufficiently enlightened to consider, that a spirit of persecution was one of the worst characteristics of superstition, and that this was at least as odious in Protestants as in Catholics. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, discontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant, to a captain in the navy, become their president, and they increased in numbers. At a time when

the nation was surrounded with real dangers, the heads of these weak men were filled with nothing but their bigoted fears, and they even seemed to fancy that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legislature to prevent some of their fellow subjects from worshipping God according to the dictates of their consciences. The Protestant association at length agreed to a petition, which was said to have been subscribed by more than one hundred thousand persons, the utmost industry having been employed to procure names to it, let their characters, occupations, or ages, be what they would, and pens put into the fingers of children which were directed to sign their names also. It was then resolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of the petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by lord George Gordon. Accordingly, at least fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons, where their petition was presented by their president. In the course of the day several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace: and a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another chapel in Warwick-street, Golden-square, were entirely demolished. A party of the guards was then sent for, to put a stop to the farther progress of these violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following another mob assembled, and destroyed a chapel in Rope-market's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school house, and three-dwelling-houses, in the same place belonging to the Catholic priests, with a valuable library of books, and a mafs-house in Virginia-street, Ratcliff-highway. They also destroyed all the household furniture of Sir George Saville, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of this unoffending part of the community. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament-house, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refused to deliver them, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. Now, a committee of the Protestant association circulated hand-bills, requesting all true Protestants to shew their attachment to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them stepped forth, notwithstanding their boasted numbers, to extinguish the flames they had occasioned: violence, tumult, and devastation, still continued. The Protestant association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, but principally by the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of lord Mansfield, and Sir John Fielding, and several other private houses were destroyed the same evening. The following day, the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell, in St. George's fields, some chapels, several private houses, Catholic, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During these extraordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. Some of

the common people engaged in these riots with the more readiness, on account of the unpopularity of the ministry: nor could so much violence and disorder have happened under any administration, which had been generally respected. At length, as all property began to be insecure, men of all classes began to see the necessity of a vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates, and to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumultuous assemblies of the people." The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony*, and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity. It was manifestly the bigotry of a few leaders of this pretended Protestant association, to which these riots owed their origin. The manner in which these tumults were suppressed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magistrate, however necessary from the peculiar circumstances of the case, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent: and that an act of indemnity ought to have been passed, not only with regard to inferior persons who had acted in the suppression of these riots, but also with respect to the ministry themselves, for the part they had taken in this transaction, in order to prevent its being established as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was disturbed by these commotions, there appeared reason to apprehend an increase of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland. The American war had occasioned various disputes between that republic and Great Britain. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ships were seized by the English cruizers, without any just cause, and when they were not laden with any contraband goods. On the other hand, loud remonstrances were made by the British minister to the States-general, complaining that a clandestine commerce was carried on between their subjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the case at St. Eustatia; and that the enemies of Great Britain were supplied with naval and military stores by the Dutch. These disputes continued to increase: and on the first of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead several ships laden with naval stores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. Previous to this transaction, the British minister had demanded of the States-general the succours which were stipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others: and which were now claimed on account of the danger with which Great Britain was threatened, and particularly the invasion that she was menaced with by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the States-general on this subject, but they delayed giving any answer. Other causes of contest also arose between England and Holland; and on the 17th of April a declaration was published by his Britannic majesty, by which it was announced, that the repeated memorials having been presented by his majesty's ambassador to the States-general, demanding the succours stipulated by treaty; to which requisition they had given no answer, nor signified any intention of compliance, and thereby deserted the alliance that had so long subsisted between Great Britain and the republic, and placed themselves in the condition of a neutral power; his majesty would consider them henceforth as standing only in that distant relation in which they had placed themselves.

These disputes continued to be agitated, when another incident happened, which greatly contributed to facilitate a war with Holland. On the third of September, the Mercury, a congress packet, was taken by the Vestal, captain Keppel, near New-

* Lord George Gordon was himself committed to the Tower and tried for high treason, but acquitted.

foundland. On board this packet was Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, who was bound on an embassy to Holland. Among his papers was found the sketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America. Indeed it did not appear that the States-general were at all consulted upon the transaction, so that it was more properly a provisional treaty with the states of Amsterdam, or of the province of Holland, than with the United Provinces at large. This treaty appeared to be approved by Mr. Van Berkel, counsellor and pensionary of the city of Amsterdam. In consequence of this discovery, his Britannic majesty demanded a formal disavowal of the whole transaction, and the exemplary punishment of the pensionary Van Berkel, and his accomplices, as disturbers of the public peace, and violators of the rights of nations. The States-general not giving an immediate answer to this requisition, fresh applications were made on this subject by the British minister; who received for answer, that his memorial had been taken *ad referendum* by the deputies of the respective provinces, according to their received custom and constitution of government; and that they would endeavour to frame an answer to his memorial, as soon as the constitution of their government would permit. This gave so little satisfaction to the British court, that their ambassador was ordered to withdraw from the Hague; and a declaration of hostilities against Holland was published on the 20th of December, 1780.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour: and that republic soon suffered a very severe stroke in the loss of the island of St. Eustatia, which was taken by the English on the 3d of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet, and a considerable body of troops, summoned the place to surrender, the inhabitants were in the utmost consternation, not having the least expectation of such an attack. Not the least resistance was made: and all the private property, goods, merchandise, and specie of the inhabitants, were seized, as well as the public military and naval stores. The capture of shipping was also very great; upwards of 200 vessels being taken, besides a 60 gun ship, and a frigate of 38 guns. The islands of St. Martin and Saba likewise surrendered, but the seizure of the private property at St. Eustatia was thought a very rigorous and shameful measure; altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and disgraceful to the British name. The inhabitants of the island of St. Christopher and the British West India planters remonstrated against it as a very dangerous precedent; by establishing a predatory system, destructive and ruinous in its consequences to individuals, and of no solid benefit to the several states concerned.

On the 5th of August, the same year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the English accounts, the Dutch squadron consisted of eight ships of the line, and the English only of seven; but the Dutch represent their force to be inferior to that of the English. On both sides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending squadrons the victory was claimed. All the ships were greatly shattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ship sunk after the action. The English had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and the loss of the Dutch is supposed to have been much greater.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, with little effectual resistance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781, but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on

both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before they could find shelter, and so left South Carolina entirely exposed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed some ravages in Virginia, destroyed much shipping, and about 8000 hogheads of tobacco; but none of these events at that time promised any speedy termination of the war, they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans, and the French at Rhode Island to that quarter, where the next year the decisive blow was struck which firmly established American Independence. Lord Cornwallis's situation at Wilmington was very disagreeable, and his force reduced so low that he could not think of marching to Charles-Town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the scattered operations of active hostility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand catastrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops, but such was their plundering and devastations on their route, and the order of the Americans, his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done, by his fears for New York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great address; as many of their posts and dispatches had been intercepted, and the letters published with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expose the poverty, weakness and disunion of the Americans; Washington soon turned the tables on the British commanders, and derived public advantage from this source of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the southern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unless by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He asserted it was absolutely determined on, and would soon be executed. These letters were intercepted (as was intended they should) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was successful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amused and deceived, and kept from forming any suspicion of the real designs of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Washington kept New York and its dependencies in a continued state of alarm for about six weeks, and then suddenly marched across the Jerseys and through Pennsylvania to the head of the Elk, at the bottom of the Chesapeake, from which, the light troops were conveyed by shipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were also there embarked and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeake, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success, for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Grasse, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the last of September it was closely invested in Yorktown, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a considerable train of artillery. The works which had

been raised by the British, sunk under the weight of the enemies batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by capitulation to general Washington, as prisoners of war*. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison, but these with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns and a number of transports were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval power and assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army, may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the immense expence of carrying it on so distant from the seat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade and the vast increase of taxes: these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this ever to be lamented contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly on the 1st of March 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of so offensive a war against the American colonies. This was a most important event, it rendered a change of measures and of councils absolutely necessary, and diffused universal joy throughout the kingdom. Those country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry, saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in an expensive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a single ally, and feeling the pressure of the public burdens, they at length deserted the standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th 1782, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

The first business of the new ministry, was the taking measures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris: with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the Congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

The new ministers also applied themselves to make some retrenchment in the public expences, and to reform some of the various abuses they had inveighed against when out of office. A bill was carried for excluding custom-house and excise officers from voting at the elections for members of the house of commons.—Another for excluding all contractors from being members; and by another bill, which also received the royal assent, the board of trade, the board of works, the great wardrobe, and the different offices of third secretary of state, treasurer of the chamber, cofferer of the household, the lords of the police in Scotland, the paymaster of the pensions, master of the harriers, master of the stag hounds, and clerks to the board of green-cloth, were abolished, which, with other savings specified in the bill, were computed to amount to 72,368*l.* per annum. On the 3d of May, it was also ordered by the house of commons, as before mentioned, that, "All the

* The American return made the number of prisoners 7,247 land and marine.

declarations, orders, and resolutions of that house respecting the election of John Wilkes, Esq. to be elected a member to serve in the said parliament, should be expunged from the journals of that house, as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of the kingdom."

Peace every day became more desirable to the nation. A series of losses agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the same month, the island of St. Christopher's was given up to the French. The valuable island of Jamaica would soon probably have shared the same fate, had not the British fleet under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Grasse in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to support the centre, and a signal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral in the *Ville de Paris* of 110 guns (a present from the city of Paris to the French king) was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another 74 sunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the design against Jamaica was frustrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and interest were greatly promoted. The new ministry, for his conduct at St. Eustatia, and differences with some of his captains, and with the merchants and planters, had superseded him, and intended to have prosecuted the inquiry into the transactions at Eustatia; but this victory silenced all, and procured him the dignity of an English peer. No other advantages followed; not one of the islands taken from us by the French, was attempted to be recovered, notwithstanding the great naval superiority; and unhappily, the *Ville de Paris*, and most of the other French ships taken by admiral Rodney, were lost at sea before they could reach England, beside two of our own ships of the line.

May 8th, the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the British arms was well sustained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot the governor, and their formidable attack on the 13th September with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c. in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in disappointment, and the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants in them. The garrison was at length relieved by lord Howe in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though 12 sail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the East Indies, and Trincomale on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but the French soon receiving considerable succours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the British fleet in several actions, but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand with various success, all the efforts of Sir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham on the 1st of July, occasioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis as first lord of the treasury, and it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to some, particularly to Mr. Fox and lord John Cavendish; who, with others, resigned their places, and commenced a fierce opposition in the house of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the ministry first came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old system* was to be revived, most probably, with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were persons whom neither pro-

misers could bind, nor principles of honor secure: they would abandon principles for the sake of power, and they would now strive to strengthen themselves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to see in a very short time, they would be joined by those very men whom that house had precipitated from their seats." The duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the present cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office, and continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auspices the preliminaries for a general peace were settled. Then, the public beheld Mr. Fox, and even lord John Cavendish, coalescing with the old ministers, lord North particularly; embracing the very men whom they had driven from their seats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great concessions to the enemy, that they might storm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and seat themselves and the men they had despised, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France*, Great Britain ceded to France of her possessions before the war, the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it agreed also to restore the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoirs of Surat, in the East Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent disputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the Eastern side, and going round by the North, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the Western side; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with respect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to restore to Great Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christophers, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification, but if they were averse to peace, no assistance on either side was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and also ceded West Florida, and Minorca which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding for the future, it was agreed that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the rivers Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledged New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, sovereign, and independent states*, and for himself, his heirs and successors relinquished all claims to the government, propriety and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof. To prevent all disputes in future on the subject of boundaries between these states and the remaining provinces to Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, as well as delineated on

* Preliminary articles settled January 20, 1783.

the map of the United States of America: and some favourable clauses were obtained for the loyalists. The navigation of the Mississippi to remain open to both parties, as also the Newfoundland fisheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties arose, but at length it was stipulated, that Great Britain should restore Trincomalé in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch should yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the East Indies, with liberty to treat for its restitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered near 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were to many a subject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been necessary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum*, would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at least to the capital of the public debt, according to the usual modes of funding. The address of thanks for the peace was carried in the house of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but lost in the house of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enlisting under the banner of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox, and lord North, plainly indicated a ministerial revolution to be near at hand, unless the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen just mentioned were made secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the Treasury, on April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preserving the nation which lord Shelburne proposed, seemed now to be dropt. Mr. Pitt's motion for correcting the defects in the representation of parliament, was lost by a majority of 293 to 149; and Mr. Sawbridge's motion, that leave be given to bring in a bill for shortening the duration of parliaments, was rejected by 123 to 56. Mr. Pitt also proposed a bill for reforming the boards of the Treasury, Admiralty, Ordnance, Excise, Stamps, and other offices, which was opposed even by the once reforming Mr. Burke, with his colleagues, they being then in lucrative offices. This bill was suffered to pass the commons, to amuse the public, but was rejected by the lords, 40 to 24. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the East India company, and their commercial affairs and territories. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houses of parliament. The same day, it was asserted in the lower house, that should the bill be lost among the peers, it was by written reports or messages to this effect, "*His majesty will not only consider as not being his friend, every person who vote for the present India bill, but he will look upon those who support it, as his enemies; and if lord T——e can find stronger words to convey his majesty's wishes to that effect, he is at liberty to use them.*" Accordingly, after long debate, the commons came to the following Resolution, amongst others, "That it is now necessary to declare, that to report any opinion, or pretended opinion, of his majesty, upon any bill, or other proceeding depending in either house of parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and misdemeanour, derogatory to the honour of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament, and subversive of the constitution of this country."

These resolutions, with some words which dropped from Mr. Fox, and lord North, the next day in the house of commons, in support of a motion for adjournment to the next week, which was thought to be intended merely to promact the

business of parliament, and put the supplies in hazard, occasioned their dissolution, and the political death of the coalition ministry. A royal message was sent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to desire the two secretaries to send the seals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the Treasury, bringing in his friends into the respective departments, which formed the tenth administration since his majesty's accession.

A dissolution of the house of commons being now feared by the coalition, they voted and carried an address to the king, to represent the dangers which appeared to them likely to follow from a prorogation or dissolution of the parliament in the present arduous and critical conjuncture of public affairs, and humbly to beseech his majesty "to hearken to the advice of his faithful commons, and not to the *secreter* *advice*s of persons who may have private interests of their own, separate from the true interests of his majesty and the people." The king assured them, he would not interrupt their meeting by any exercise of his prerogative, either of prorogation or dissolution.

Since the unhappy days of Charles I. a more important contest has not occurred between the Crown and Parliament than that which arose upon the present occasion;—and tho' it must be considered only as a struggle for power between leading factions, it wore an aspect that excited the fears and apprehensions of most people during its continuance.—It was thought that the *Coalition* intended to monopolize all the power of the country, by the portion of influence which their India Bill would throw into their hands.—This consideration, and the endeavours that were made by sundry resolutions which they carried in the house of Commons, denying, or tending to controul his majesty's right to appoint his ministers*, had such effect on the public mind, that addresses poured in from every part of the kingdom, congratulating his majesty on their dismissal from power, and the escape from the evils with which they threatened the constitution.

In the course of this contest the various resolutions were carried in full houses by the small majorities of 21, of 9, of 8 and even of 1, so closely were the parties pushed.—After harassing the progress of national business for several months the Coalition party gave up the contest.—The necessary bills were then forwarded in both houses, and on the 24th March the session was closed with a speech from the Throne.

On the following day a proclamation was issued for dissolving the parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the desires and addresses of a great part of the kingdom.—At this time the great seal was stolen from the house of the Chancellor, which occasioned many suspicions, as if done by more than ordinary felons. On

* "If those only are to be deemed eligible, who are the declared favourites of the house of commons; what kind of guards and centinels will our representatives become, in watching over the conduct of their own favourites, their own creatures? *Et quis custodes custodiet ipsos?* Besides, there is another most alarming consideration, which seems to be too much over-looked. According to these *new* regulations, no man ought to be made prime minister, who has not acquired the confidence of the house of commons. Be it so: but then, How is this confidence to be obtained?—What measure is the candidate to pursue, for obtaining an influence so preponderating as to secure his election? The true answer to which question is this, He must make interest with, he must study to oblige (soft words in the present case for flattering, bribing, and corrupting) as many leading members as he can, to espouse his cause; he must, and he will, make large promises, that, as soon as he shall come into power, he will gratify these with honours, titles, stars, and ribands; those with places, pensions, or lucrative jobs, and contracts. In short, he must know every man's price; and act according to this plan of iniquity. Thus, by the great innovation now attempted to be introduced into the constitution, the British empire will be as surely overturned, and as truly set to sale to the highest bidder within the walls of the house of commons, as the Roman empire was by the Prætorian guards, during the declension of that unwieldy falling state." *Dean Tucker.*

the 18th of May the new parliament assembled in which it appeared that the Coalition power was intirely broken, and that the new administration under Mr. Pitt had secured a very decided and powerful majority.

On the 16th of June, in a debate to appoint a committee to enquire into the present state of representation of this country, lord North and Mr. Fox were in opposition, and Mr. Pitt and Dundas, whom he had made treasurer of the navy: Dundas argued on the side of his old friend lord North, and was against any alteration; others thought the time of the motion to be improper, and on the previous question being put, it was dropped by 199 against 125. The minister now went on with his ways and means for supplies, and by lowering the tea duty, which he thought would ruin the smugglers, he was forced to devise other taxes highly burdensome to the public. The window tax especially, which is both partial and oppressive, screening the lordly and wealthy, who are to pay but for two houses, and the highest sum for each is only 20l.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous East India bill the 5th of July. Time alone will discover whether it was framed with wisdom and circumspection, and whether it will be adequate and effectual to the great purposes intended, and held forth to view. With very little opposition, all the system of new bills and taxes was framed and carried through both houses, and the parliamentary campaign closed on the 20th of August, with a complimentary speech from the throne, wishing his faithful subjects to meet the new heavy burdens with fortitude and patience.

On the 25th of January, 1785, the parliament assembled. Amongst a variety of matter which pressed on their attention, none seemed of more consequence than the state of parliamentary representation; the system of fortifications proposed by the Duke of Richmond; the affairs of India, and the propositions for a trading intercourse with Ireland. The business of a parliamentary reform appears to have been taken up by Mr. Pitt as a ministerial measure, and to have received from him a considerable share of attention; he accordingly introduced a specific plan for that purpose on the 18th of April, which he prefaced by a history of parliamentary representation to a very remote period. The result of this plan was, to give one hundred members to the popular interest of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thousand persons, who, by the existing provisions of law, were excluded from it. This accession to the popular interest was to be principally obtained by the suppression of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their representatives to the counties; so that the number of the House of Commons would remain the same.—After a debate of considerable length, leave for bringing in the bill was refused by a majority of 74, the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

From the apprehensions of the nation, during the late war, for the safety of the dock-yards, whilst the combined fleets were in the channel, and no adequate naval force to oppose them, the Duke of Richmond conceived the idea of fortifying them, as the best protection from future insult or danger. Considerable sums had been annually granted for this purpose, but the extent of the expense at length attracted the attention of a respectable portion of the House of Commons, and after a full discussion of the utility of the plan, it was determined (finally in the following session) to discontinue the works as useless, and, in some respects, as dangerous.

The affairs of India, altho' they did not engage the public attention so much this year as the former, yet the proceedings of the board of controul, afforded matter for much parliamentary debate, but no measure of consequence arose therefrom.

Amongst the variety of new taxes imposed in this session, that called the Shop-Tax occasioned the greatest murmurings.—It is certainly unequal, and consequently oppressive, as it falls upon a body, few in number, industrious and necessary.

The subject of the greatest importance that came before the present parliament, and by which this epoch will be characterized to the latest posterity, was that which has usually been denominated the Irish Propositions.—This new system of intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland was first introduced into the parliament of the latter kingdom by Mr. Orde on the 7th of February, in the form of ten propositions; these, by a small alteration, and the distribution of the subject of one of them into two heads, were increased to eleven. They received the assent of both houses in that kingdom, and on the 22d of the same month, were communicated to the parliament of Great Britain by Mr. Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer. The leading principle in this plan, was the equalizing the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries; and for the benefits communicated thereby to the sister kingdom, she was in return to give a certain portion of her hereditary revenue towards the maintenance of the navy of the empire.—The subject had received but little discussion, when the fears and prejudices of the manufacturers were roused in every part of the kingdom; innumerable petitions were presented and evidences heard; committees were formed from assemblies of these manufacturers, who were directed to oppose the passing the propositions into a law.—The force of opposition in the House of Commons, corroborated that without doors; and the spirit and tendency of the measure was so changed by alteration, that at the end of three months consideration, the system was extended to twenty propositions, many of which obviated the objections that were made to those originally proposed. In the House of Lords it excited equal attention; the aggregate abilities of opposite parties were called forth, and it was not till the 19th of July that the resolutions were sent down to the Commons, where they were formed into a bill, which was read a first time on the 2d of August, and the House immediately adjourned. Previous to their adjournment, they addressed the king, acquainting him with their proceedings in this business, and adding, that it “remained for the parliament of Ireland to judge of the conditions according to their wisdom and discretion.”—The result of this important affair will be seen in the history of that country.

In consequence of severe prohibitions having been laid on the importation of British manufactures into the Austrian dominions, and several restrictions on their introduction into France, the minister opened a negotiation with the latter kingdom, for a more liberal commercial intercourse between the two countries, and appointed Mr. Eden envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary for that purpose. A treaty was accordingly concluded, and ratified by both houses of parliament. This was a measure of great political consequence, as it tended to break asunder the national prejudices which had existed for so many ages between the two countries, perhaps to their mutual injury.

Parliament assembled on the 24th January, 1786, and amongst the various measures agitated, the plan for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their most immediate attention. This measure, which had the hearty concurrence of every man, who desired the emancipation of the state from such an accumulated weight of debt and taxes, was carried into a law, which created commissioners for carrying the purposes of this valuable act into execution.

We come now to one of the most important transactions of the present times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Hastings, late Governor General of Bengal; the recollection of which will always most strongly arrest the feelings, and interest the passions of the human mind, from the importance of the character, the crimes of which he was accused, and the magnitude of the abilities displayed in the prosecution.

The characters both of the accuser and of the person accused, were such as to give dignity and interest to the scope of the business. Mr. Burke, a man of the

most original genius, of the most cultivated talents, the most unwearied application, and the most unimpeached probity. Mr. Hastings, on the other hand, a man of strong imagination, of boundless spirit and enterprize, and of extensive observation. His mind was by no means cast in a mean or vulgar mould.

On the 17th of February, Mr. Burke explained, in some degree, the mode of proceeding he was desirous to adopt; and, in the course of the session, moved for a multitude of papers to ground and substantiate his charges on: these were at length produced, and Mr. Hastings heard at the bar of the House of Commons in his defence. The debates which arose on the subject terminated in resolutions. That certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment against the late Governor General of Bengal.—This important business being now depending, it would ill become the impartiality of history to declare our sentiments on it.—It is only necessary to inform the reader, that the subject being revived in the session of 1787, the several charges were completed and agreed to; and being (13th Feb. 1788,) laid before the House of Lords, and managers for the prosecution appointed by the Commons, who have proceeded to support the articles of impeachment, we shall not attempt to anticipate the judgment of that august assembly.

The feeble attempt of an obscure and contemptible maniac, of the name of Margaret Nicholson, against the life of the sovereign, in the face of day, and in the sight of a multitude of spectators, was productive of no other effect, than to shew how much he was beloved by his subjects. The general exultation which prevailed after that event, reflected honour on the people as well as the king.

The loss of America, and the impolicy of sending convicts into our remaining Colonies on that Continent, suggested, about this time, the idea of sending these unhappy sacrifices to justice to a settlement to be formed at Botany Bay, on the east side of New Holland.—Accordingly, on the 13th June, 1787, a large fleet of transports, protected by several ships of war, and supplied with every material necessary for the purpose, sailed for that island, under the command of Commodore Philips.—The future importance to which this establishment may arise, and the various speculations it has already occasioned, impelled us to mention it amongst the interesting occurrences of this period.

We shall close the historical affairs of England with observing, that the circumstances of affairs in Europe, at this time, rendered it necessary to unite the interests of Prussia, Holland, and this country more firmly together; accordingly a treaty, offensive and defensive, has been entered into between these respective courts, which promises to cement their strength and union, and enable them to withstand the machinations of their enemies.

W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has distinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with the common custom, assigned it a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 130	between { 51 and 54 North latitude. 2,41 and 4,56 West longitude.
Breadth 96	
Area in square miles 7011.	

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore

years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wales (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

BOUNDARIES.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not however appear, that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See **ENGLAND**.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the Northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganhire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniencies of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in some years ago about forty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

RELIGION.] The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning, but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge have in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed, to remove from place to place for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vast expence bibles, common-prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-school. The established religion is that of England.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the reformation.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welch, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars. The Welch Pater-noster is as follows:

Ein Tad, yr bwn yn y nefoedd, sancteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaeear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro i ni heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddieu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddieuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, ei'br gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos oespedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey*, and has a harbour for ships. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen; and part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. **NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.** } Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and some appear to be partly British, and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the following. At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the sea. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present which was made him of the very shift in which his great-grandmother, Mary Stuart,

* The Isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait, called Menai, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water; the island is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 parishes. It was the ancient seat of the British Druids.

lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to sling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greatest rains. After a violent fall of wet, it becomes discoloured by a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular measurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. It lies under two capital disadvantages. The first is, that making it the rendezvous of all the English marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally destroy the shipping, however strongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The same objection however lies to every harbour that contains ships of war and merchantmen. The second, and perhaps the chief disadvantage it lies under, is the strong opposition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it must meet with in parliament from the numerous Cornish and West-country members, the benefit of whose estates must be greatly lessened by the disuse of Plymouth and Portsmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgher for every shire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, there were ordained four several circuits for the administration of justice in the said shires, each of which was to include three shires; so that the chief justice of Chester has under his jurisdiction the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justice of North Wales. Those of Caermarthen, Pembrokeshire, and Cardigan, have also their justices; as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief-justice, and a second justice-assistant.

REVENUE.] As to the revenues, the crown has a small property, in the product of the silver and lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

Handwritten notes:
 Height of Snowdon in North Wales 1511 feet
 Perpendicular height from sea level 1400
 Distance from P. to N. 20600 feet
 Alt. Gimala (Square between Cashmere & Thibet) - 27000 feet
 4 miles

Arms.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I serve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1st of March, and for which various reasons have been assigned.

History.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people cut out so much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Powetia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made however many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England to maintain their liberties; and even the English historians admit the injustice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the prosecutions of his undutiful son Grissyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn prince of Wales, disdainful the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, Edward raised an irresistible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward from that time pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England becomes now the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE Island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees of west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime (where the longest day is 16½ hours); and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longest day is 17½ hours.

Mr. Templeman makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, and gives it an area of 27,457 square miles. This measurement has been disputed; but that which comes nearest to reconciling the different accounts, makes it 285 miles from Fairhead, north, to Milenhead, south; and from the east part of Down, to the west part of Mayo (where the island stretches most in opposite directions) 160 miles, and to contain above 11,000,000 Irish plantation acres, or about 17,900,000 acres of English statute measure*.

This island is bounded on the north by the Deuceledonian Sea; on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the east by the Irish Sea, or St. George's Channel, which divides it from the western shores of Great Britain†.

DIVISIONS.] By the ancient division of Ireland, Munster contained 70 Contrades; Leinster 31; Connaught 30; Ulster 35; and Meath 18; in all 184 Contrades. A Contrade contained 31 town-lands, every town-land to pasture 300 cows, and to contain 8 plow-lands;—a plow-land supposed to be such a portion of land as may give employment to one plow continually going through the year. 184 Contrades contained 5,520 town-lands, and 44,160 plow-lands‡.

* The DOWN SURVEY makes the contents of Ireland to be 11,042,642 Irish acres, and the accurate and ingenious Colonel Vallancey reports it to be 11,046,371.

† The great intercourse between the two Islands of Ireland and Great Britain, and the consequence of their relative situation, rendering the distances between their nearest ports of some importance, we have inserted the following table thereof:

From Milford Haven	to Cape Clear	65 Leagues.	From Holyhead	to Wexford	33 Leagues.
	to Kinsale	50		to Wicklow	19
	to Cork	49		to Dublin	21
	to Youghall	40		to Drogheda	23
	to Waterford	30		to Dundalk	27
	to Black Rock	20		to Strangford	
	to Wexford	23		Bay	24
	to Wicklow	33	From Park-Gate	to Dublin	38
	to Dublin	45		to Dundalk	52
	to Drogheda	52		to Drogheda	47
	to Dundalk	58			
From Holyhead	to Cape Clear	85	From Liverpool	to Dublin	45
	to Kinsale	69		to Dundalk	49
	to Cork	65		to Strangford	
	to Youghall	56		Bay	42
	to Waterford	42			
	to Black Rock	37	From Portpatrick to Donaghadee		5½

‡ On the invasion of the English under Henry II. Ireland was, in fact, subdivided into several independent provinces, of which the seven following were the principal: *Desmond*, under the Mac-Carthy's; *Thomond*, subject to the O'Brians; *Hy-Kinsellagh*, or *Leinster*, under the Hy-Kinsellagh line of Cahir the Great; *Uladh*, under the O'Dunlevys and Mac-Mahons; the South *Hy-Niall*, or *Meath*, under the Clan-Colmans, otherwise the O'Malachlins; the North *Hy-Niall*, under the O'Neills and O'Donalls; and *Hy-Brune*, together with *Hy-Fiaca*, otherwise *Connaught*, under the O'Conors. DISSERT. BY O'CONOR.

No. XIII.

3 D.

The customary Devonshire acre is equal to	A. R. P.
The Dorsetshire	0 3 12
The Cornish	0 3 14
The Scotch	1 0 17½
The Irish	1 1 5
The Lancashire	1 2 10
The Cheshire	1 3 17
The following is an acre	2 0 19

Some account of various acres in use in Great Britain and Ireland, reduced as near as possible to the English statute acre.

The modern division of this island is into four provinces, viz. 1 Leinster; 2 Ulster; 3 Munster; 4 Connaught; and these again into 32 Counties, 267 Baronies and 2293 Parishes. The following table will shew the principal town and the acreable contents of each county:

Provinces.	Counties.	Acres.	Chief Towns.
LEINSTER, 12 Counties,	Carlow, - - -	116,900	Carlow,
	Dublin, - - -	123,784	Dublin,
	Kildare, - - -	228,590	Naas and Athy,
	Kilkenny, - - -	287,650	Kilkenny,
	King's County, -	257,510	Philipstown,
	Longford, - - -	134,700	Longford,
	Louth, - - -	111,180	Drogheda and Dundalk,
	Meath, - - -	326,480	Trim,
	Queen's County, -	238,415	Maryborough,
	Westmeath, - - -	249,943	Mullingar,
	Wexford, - - -	315,396	Wexford,
	Wicklow, - - -	252,410	Wicklow,
		<hr/> 2,642,958	
ULSTER, 9 Counties,	Antrim, - - -	383,020	Carrickfergus,
	Armagh, - - -	170,620	Armagh,
	Cavan, - - -	274,800	Cavan,
	Down, - - -	344,658	Downpatrick,
	Donnegal, - - -	630,157	Lifford,
	Fermanagh, - - -	224,807	Inniskilleu,
	Londonderry, - -	251,510	Derry,
	Monaghan, - - -	170,090	Monaghan,
	Tyrone, - - -	387,175	Omagh,
		<hr/> 2,836,837	
MUNSTER, 6 Counties,	Clare, - - -	428,187	Ennis,
	Cork, - - -	991,010	Cork,
	Kerry, - - -	636,905	Tralee,
	Limerick, - - -	375,320	Limerick,
	Tipperary, - - -	599,500	Clonmel,
	Waterford, - - -	259,010	Waterford,
		<hr/> 3,289,932	
CONNAUGHT, 5 Counties,	Galway, - - -	775,525	Galway,
	Leitrim, - - -	206,830	Carrick on Shannon,
	Mayo, - - -	724,640	Castlebar,
	Roscommon, - - -	324,370	Roscommon,
	Sligo, - - -	241,550	Sligo,
		<hr/> 2,272,915	
In all Ireland,		<hr/> 11,042,642	

NAME.] The Irish Antiquarians generally agree, that the ancient name of Ireland was *Scotia*, and that, at different periods, it has also been called *Ierne*, *Juverna*, *Hibernia*, &c. Much critical learning, and national partiality, appeared for several ages between the writers of Ireland and Scotland on this subject, and on the sources from whence their respective countries were peopled; but the concurring sentiments and testimony of the most respectable authors, have decided the controversy in favour of Ireland on the former point; and the opinion of Hume (in confirmation of our own authorities) certainly puts an end to the discussion of the latter, by a declaration in support of the pretensions of this kingdom*.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The climate of Ireland, though it does not generally differ much from that of England, is however found to possess an atmosphere more moist, with more frequent returns of rain. From the reports of various registers it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain) is not only more characteristic of the climate of this island than that of England, but is also one of its worst and most inconvenient circumstances. This is accounted for in observing, that "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and African Continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immense ocean. Our sky is hereby much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation, these vapours descend in such constant rains, as threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth in some seasons. This unavoidable evil from natural causes is aggravated by the increase of it from others, which are absolutely either moral or political. The hand of industry hath been long idle in a country where almost every advantage must be obtained from its labour, and where discouragements on the labourer must necessarily produce a state of languor, equally hurtful to the prosperity and manners of every nation. Ever since the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of so many ages subsiding on the lower grounds, have converted most of our extensive plains into mossy morasses, and near a tenth part of this beautiful Isle is become a repository for stagnated waters, which, in the course of evaporation, impregnate our air with noxious exhalations†." But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the Summers being cooler, and the Winters less severe. The piercing frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so frequently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampness above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grass, has been used as an argument why the inhabitants should confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total desertion of tillage, and injury to the consequent growth of population; but the soil is so infinitely various, as to be capable of almost every species of cultivation suited to such latitudes, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is so conspicuous, that it has been observed by a respectable English traveller, that "Natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this I believe there can scarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is considered, that some of the more beautiful, and even best culti-

* "The Scots had first been established in Ireland, had sent over a Colony to the north-west coast of this island [Great Britain], and had long been accustomed, as well from their old as their new seats, to infect the Roman province by their piracy and rapine." Hume's Hist. of England, vol. I. p. 12.
† O'Connor's Dissertations.

3 D 2
an advantage from the East Winds in Spring
the coming season

"vated counties in England, owe almost every thing to the capital art and industry of its inhabitants."

We shall conclude this article with the further sentiments of the same author, (Mr. Young) whose knowledge of the subject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumstance which strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that I have great reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds rising out of the sea, I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognize in this the hand of bounteous Providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stoney soil in Europe to the moistest climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays of England (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone), as falls upon the rocks of her sister island, those lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of lime-stone with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal, that it predominates in every sort. One cannot use, with propriety, the terms clay, loam, sand, &c. it must be a stoney clay, a stoney loam, a gravelly sand. Clay, especially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper discrimination. I have once or twice seen almost a pure clay upon the surface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is usually found in a thin stratum, under the surface mould, and over a rock; harsh, tenacious, stoney, strong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from English clays.

"Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soils in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all, are the bullock-pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcassies. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through Spain, France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Petersburg, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea coast. Nor did I ever meet with, or hear of, a chalky soil.

"Besides the great fertility of the soil, there are other circumstances, which come within my sphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable, that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers. Witness the Suir, Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety, which a flat country can never abound with. And, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the usual character of poverty, which attends them. I was either upon or very near the most considerable in the kingdom. Mangerton and the Reeks, in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and sublimity, which should render them the objects of every traveller's attention."

[RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] Perhaps no country of the same extent is more bountifully watered by the finest rivers and lakes, or more perfectly indented by the noblest harbours; so as to possess in an eminent degree those great requisites for agriculture, manufactures and the most extended commerce. The rivers, besides abounding with an infinite variety of fish, communicate uncommon fertility to the lands which they beautify, and afford a multitude of the best situations for the machinery of manufactures. The harbours are not only numerous, but, in some instances, capable of containing, in the utmost security, the greatest fleets; stretching out their protecting arms, and courting the pompous ornament of regal navies, or the cheerful signs of far-extended commerce. These, however, have been long solitary and unfrequented, as the illiberal spirit of trading jealousy had, for many ages, with successful injustice, rendered all these distinguished blessings of providence of no value; except to the adventurous mariner, whom distress or tempest had driven to experience their seasonable protection.

The principal rivers are the Shannon, Barrow, Nore, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffey, and Boyne. The Shannon issues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-head and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, south of Killaloe; to remedy this evil, parliament has granted considerable sums, the expenditure of which does not appear to have produced the desired effect, either from error in the plan, or insufficiency in the means. Were this desirable object completed, communications might also be made with other rivers, to the great improvement of the inland navigation.

The Lee rises in the county of Cork, below which city it falls into the sea, after an easterly course of about twenty-six miles. The Liffey rises in the county of Wicklow, and, pursuing a meandering course of considerable length, falls into the Irish sea below Dublin. The Boyne rises near Edenderry in the King's County, and falls into the sea at Drogheda. The Barrow, Nore, and Suir, have their sources in different branches of the same mountain, namely Slieu-Bloom, and fall, after having united their streams, into the sea, at Hook-point, at the mouth of the haven of Waterford. The Bann, famous for a pearl and salmon fishery, rises in the county of Down, and falls into Lough Neagh, in the county of Armagh.

It would be difficult to enumerate the many bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which indent every part of the coast, and from their various situations in respect to other countries, render this, above all others, the most admirably accommodated for universal commerce; the following are the principal: Waterford, Carlingford, and Strangford-havens, the bay of Carrickfergus, on the east; Lough-Foyle and Lough-Swilly, Ship-haven, Killybegs-harbour, Donegal-haven, on the north; Galway-haven, the mouth of the Shannon, Sherwick or St. Marywick-haven, Dingle-bay, on the west; Kenmare-bay or river, Bantry, Dunmanus, and Baltimore-bays, Castle-haven, Glendore-haven, Kinsale, and Cork-havens, on the south and south-east. There are likewise a great many barred havens, some of which have been much improved by Acts of parliament, particularly that of Dublin.

The Lakes or Loughs of Ireland have so many properties, in some respects peculiar to themselves, that their singularities, their extent, or their beauties, have long engaged the pens of the traveller, and the poet; and have attracted the curiosity and excited the admiration of people of taste from every part of Europe. The most remarkable are the Lake of Killarney, Lough-erne and Lough-Neagh.

The Lakes of Killarney hold the first place in the estimation of those who have seen similar objects in other countries; who declare themselves incapable of conveying any adequate idea of the various and uncommon beauties which adorn this region, so much favoured by the hand of nature—it cannot therefore be expected, that any tolerable degree of justice can be done to their merits, in the confined limits of a page—all we can promise our readers is an imperfect sketch of the leading features, leaving the rest to be supplied by their own imagination.

The Lakes are three in number. The northern or lower Lake, is six miles in length, and from three to four in breadth.—The Town of Killarney is situate on its northern shore—the country on this and the eastern boundary, is rather of a tawny character, but is here and there diversified with gentle swells, many of which afford delightful prospects of the lake, the islands, and surrounding scenery.

The southern shore is composed of immense mountains, rising abruptly from the water, and covered with woods of the finest timber.—From the centre of the Lake, the view of this range is astonishingly sublime, presenting to the eye an extent of forest six miles in length, and from half a mile to a mile and a half in breadth, hanging in a robe of rich luxuriance, on the sides of two mountains, whose bare tops rising above the whole, form a perfect contrast to the verdure of the lower region.

On the side of one of these mountains is O'Sullivan's Cascade, which falls into the lake with a roar that strikes the timid with awe on approaching it.—The view of this sheet of water is uncommonly fine, appearing as if it were descending from an arch of wood, which overhangs it above seventy feet in height from the point of view.

Coasting along this shore affords an almost endless entertainment—every change of position presenting a new scene—the rocks hollowed and worn into a variety of forms by the waves; and the trees and shrubs, bursting from the pores of the sapless stone, forced to assume the most uncouth shapes, to adapt themselves to their fantastick situations.

The islands are not so numerous in this as in the upper lake, but there is one of such uncommon beauty, that it would be unpardonable to pass it unnoticed.

The isle of Inisfallen lies nearly opposite O'Sullivan's Cascade—it contains eighteen Irish acres, and, for that portion of land, can probably exhibit more picturesque elegance than any other spot in Europe.—The coast is formed into a variety of bays and promontories, skirted and crowned with arbutus, holly, and other shrubs and trees.—The interior parts are diversified with hills and dales and gentle clivities, on which every tree and shrub appears to advantage.—Views of the lake are caught through the vales, and between the stems of the trees, and from two or three eminences there are prospects of the hills of Aghadoe, the distant islands, and the opposite wooded mountains.—Trees of the largest size incline across the vales, forming natural arches, with ivy entwining in the branches, and hanging in festoons of foliage—add to these advantages a soil rich even to exuberance, and the isle of Inisfallen may be considered as a perfect model of rural elegance.

The promontory of Muckross, which divides the upper from the lower lake, is a perfect land of incantment—the shore is composed of rocks, in some places bulging and overhanging in the most extraordinary forms—in others worn into caverns and recesses by the agitation of the water, and here and there diversified with trees and shrubs. There is a road carried through the centre of the promontory, which unfolds all the interior beauties of the place—These are as various, and as uncommon, as the hand of nature ever formed; presenting such combinations of rocks, of trees and shrubs, of lawns and water, as will ever be viewed with pleasure, but never can be described with any degree of justice.—There are various situations on this promontory, that command views of the lakes, the islands, and the distant moun-

tains—among the latter, Turk appears an object of uncommon magnificence, and Mangerton's loftier, though less interesting, summit rears itself above the whole.

The passage to the upper lake is round the extremity of Mucrusa, which confines it on one side, and the approaching mountains on the other.—It would require a volume to give an adequate description of the romantick beauties of this intricate navigation, where the stream is continually winding round projections, or expanding over small levels, surrounded by precipices, in some places ornamented with woods, in others nothing to be seen but rocks, thrown together in the wildest forms imaginable.

In this streight is the celebrated rock called the Eagle's Nest—it rises abruptly from the water, to an astonishing height, the base for some distance up covered with trees, but the part which appears above the wood is composed of immense blocks of marble, heaped one over the other, almost perpendicular—here and there huge masses thrust forward their savage heads, threatening the gazers below with instant destruction.—This rock produces those wonderful echoes which have so often excited the admiration of the visitors of Killarney—A French horn sounded here raises a concert superior to a hundred instruments, and the report of a single cannon is instantly answered by a succession of peals, resembling the loudest thunder, which seems to travel the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains.

The upper lake is four miles in length, and from two to three in breadth—it is almost surrounded with mountains, in some parts bare and wild even to rudeness, in others covered with luxuriant woods, hanging in deep shades down to the water—from the mountains descend a number of streams, some of them forming beautiful cascades, that of a clear day glitter in the sun-beams, giving a high degree of animation to the whole scenery.

The islands in this lake are numerous, and afford an amazing variety of picturesque views; many are bare and rocky; some low and covered with tall timber—while others, of pyramidal forms, start from the bosom of the lake, crowned in the most elegant manner with wreaths of arbutus and other shrubs—these islands cut the water into a number of winding freights, where the trees and shrubs, inclining forward, appear in dark shades, presenting delightful contrasts to the silver surface of the lake.

The third, or centre lake, communicates with the upper—it is but small in comparison of the other two, and cannot boast of equal variety—but though it suffers by comparison, yet it is not destitute of natural advantages.—The shores are in many places indented with beautiful bays, surrounded with dark groves of trees, some of which have a most picturesque appearance when viewed from the water.—The eastern boundary is formed by the base of Mangerton, down the steep side of which descends a cascade, visible for a hundred and fifty yards. This fall of water is supplied by a circular lake, near the summit of the mountain, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl; which, on account of its immense depth, and the continual overflow of water, is considered as one of the greatest curiosities of Killarney.

There are various situations, on this and the neighbouring mountains, that command extensive prospects of the lakes, with their Islands, Bays, and Promontories—these views are wild and grand to an astonishing degree,—but the minuter beauties are lost, as there must be a closer inspection of the Lakes of Killarney, to discover those scenes of rural elegance, which nature seems to have selected, for the double purpose of exciting the exertions, and mocking the humble imitations of man.

Lough-erne is the largest lake in Ireland, being forty miles in length, and in some parts fifteen in breadth.—Near the middle it contracts itself for a considerable way, assuming the appearance of a noble river, winding round the hills, and sweeping

through the vales, with such a varied progress, and so frequently shifting its course, that conspicuous objects, when viewed from the water, appear as if under the influence of incantment, perpetually altering their forms and changing their positions—after pursuing this fantastic course for some miles, it divides into two branches forming an island in the centre, on which stands the Town of Inniskillen—the communication with the main land being preserved by two bridges. No town in Ireland can boast of such an advantageous situation for inland commerce, the lake affording it an intercourse, by water, with several counties; and this circumstance in its favour might be further improved, by cutting a canal and building locks, from Belleek to Bally-Shannon, which would open a passage into the Atlantic Ocean.

The upper part of the Lake towards Belturbet is perfectly studded with islands, many of them so completely covered with wood, that all appearance of land is obscured, and the trees seem to spring from the surface of the water.

There are others of a more varied character, presenting beautiful polished lawns, rising and falling to the eye, in graceful swells, and gentle declivities, ornamented with clumps and scattered trees, whose dark shades serve as foils to set off the livelier verdure of the surface.

These islands give to the lake an amazing variety of beautiful outlines—in some parts they retire, leaving large spaces of water unoccupied; in others they cluster into groups, forming a number of bays and streights, while the woods inclining down the declivities, cast a perfect gloom on the surface of the water.

Near a mile below Inniskillen lies the Island of Devenish—it contains two hundred acres of the richest land in the country, and is remarkable for possessing one of the completest round towers in Ireland.—This tower is built of black stone, cut into blocks, which seem united, independent of cement.—There is also on this island the ruin of an ancient church, an object generally found to accompany these towers.

Below Devenish the lake begins to expand to its utmost breadth, and there being but few islands to intercept the view, the water appears in noble reaches, bounded by the distant coasts, and these backed by mountains, giving that strong marked outline which is always necessary to complete an extensive prospect.

Over the rising grounds in the vicinity of the lake, are scattered a number of seats and farm-houses, which give a degree of cheerfulness to the views;—among the former is Castle Hume, appearing in the centre of beautiful woods, that spread over the slopes, and hang on the steep declivities, in some places approaching, in others retiring from the water in deep masses of shade.

Towards the lower part of the lake there are several islands, diversifying this extensive sheet of water. Many of these are large, affording pasture to herds of black cattle and sheep; while others rise in steep hills, and are thickly covered with wood:—not a vacant spot to be seen, and the trees press so closely, one on the other, that the branches of the lower tiers are frequently compelled to take refuge in the bosom of the lake.

Some of the most striking beauties of Lough-Erne, are to be found in the vicinity of Castle Caldwell—here the water is thrown into a variety of elegant forms, by head-lands and promontories, shooting far into the lake; the steep sides of which are covered with extensive woods, deepening in their shades as they retire from the eye, while the distant mountains, rising above the whole, cast an air of dignity over the surrounding scenery.

Lough-Neagh is of an oval figure, but considerably indented on its sides; it is near twenty miles in length, and about ten in breadth; and abounds with a variety of fish, particularly the Pullet, or, as some call it, the fresh-water herring, greatly admired for the uncommon delicacy of its flavour.

This Lough is not so much distinguished for those picturesque beauties, which con-

tribute to the celebrity of Killarney and Erne, as for the mineral and petrifying qualities, which it is supposed to possess.—Popular partiality has, since a remote period, attributed great merit to the anti-scorbutic virtues of its waters; but we do not find that any well authenticated cases, communicated by men of science, have appeared to justify this opinion; nor do the chymical experiments, particularly those of the late Dr. Rutty, discover any remarkable mineral properties in those waters, to support it.

Whether the petrifying quality imputed to this lake, exists in the water, or the soil, has been a subject of much enquiry; that it exists in either is generally believed from the numerous specimens, which are constantly discovered on the shores, of different species of wood, either wholly converted into stone, or which are found to be partly in one state and partly in the other; which latter afford the most conclusive evidence of the existence of this petrifying property. It has been justly observed that whatever particular quality water is impregnated with, must be derived from the soil thro' which it runs;—now, in the neighbouring grounds, even at the distance of two or three miles, and in situations considerably higher than the Lough, specimens of wood, perfectly and imperfectly, converted into stone are frequently found; sometimes on the banks of many of those streams which fall into the lake, and sometimes in situations more remote.—On the shores are also frequently met with a variety of beautiful pebbles, cornelians, agates, and other valuable stones, which have long been objects of curiosity to the virtuosi.

MOUNTAINS, CAVES, and GLENS.] There are several lofty chains as well as single mountains in this kingdom; and they have three words in the Irish that express the different degrees of their elevation, namely, *Knock*, *Slieu*, and *Bein*. Among the last or highest sort are the mountains of Carlingford; the Carlieus, which separate the counties of *Sligo*, *Roscommon*, and *Connaught*; those in the county of *Donegal* about *Lough-Swilly*; the *Mangerton* mountain in the county of *Kerry*; *Croagh-Patrick* in the county of *Mayo*; the *Galties* in the county of *Tipperary*; *Slieu-bloom* running through part of the *King and Queen's Counties*, and part of the county of *Tipperary*; the *Brandon* mountains in the county of *Kerry*, to the east of *Smerwick-bay*; *Slieu-galen*, in the county of *Tyrone*; the mountains of *Wicklow*, particularly *Sugar-loaf-hill*; the mountains of *Mourne* and *Iseah*, in the county of *Down*, are esteemed among the highest in the kingdom, particularly that called *Slieu-Donard*, which is thought to be one thousand and fifty-six yards in perpendicular height; and many others, several of which contain veins of iron, lead, copper, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate, and marble.

About two miles from the city of *Kilkenny*, in the neighbourhood of the *Park-house* of *Donmore*, are a number of caves, which are supposed to be equal to any in the universe; those of *Antiparos*, in the *Archipelago*, excepted. The following description of them, being written by a gentleman on the spot, we shall give it in his own words: “After a difficult descent of about one hundred feet, the entrance into this subterraneous world is gained. The appearance of the first cavern is uncommonly awful, and gives rise to an idea of a grand Gothic structure in ruins. The solemnity of this place is not a little increased by the gaiety of those scenes that present themselves on every side, previous to our entering it. The floor is uneven, and stones of various sizes are promiscuously dispersed upon it. The sides are composed of ragged work, in some parts covered with moss, and in others curiously frosted; and from the roof, which is a kind of arch, several huge rocks project beyond each other, in such a manner, that they seem to threaten instant ruin. The circumference of this cave is not less than two hundred feet, and its height about fifty. Here is a small, but continually dropping water from the ceiling, and a few

petrifications resembling icicles. This place is not destitute of inhabitants; for immediately on entering into it, you are surprized with a confused noise, which is occasioned by a multitude of wild pidgeons. Hence there is a passage towards the left, where, by a small ascent, a kind of hole is gained, much larger, but in form greatly resembling the mouth of an oven, which introduces the spectator to a place, where, by the help of candles, day-light being entirely excluded, a broken and surprizing scene of monstrous stones, heaped on each other, chequered with various colours, inequality of rocks over-head, and an infinity of stalactical stones, presents itself. Nature, one would imagine, designed the first cave as a preparative for what remains to be seen; by it the eyes are familiarized to uncommon and awful objects, and the mind tolerably fortified against those ideas which result from a combination of appearances, unthought of, surprizing and menacing. The spectator flatters himself, that he has nothing to behold more awful, nor any thing more dangerous to meet than what he finds in the first cavern, but he soon discovers his mistake; for the bare want of that light, which dresses nature with gaiety, is alone sufficient to render the second far more dreadful. In the first, he fancies ruin frowns upon him from several parts; but in this it is threatened from a thousand vast rocks rudely piled on each other, that compose the sides, which seem bending in, and a multitude of no smaller size are pendent from the roof in the most extraordinary manner; add to this, that by one false step, he would be dashed from precipice to precipice: indeed it would be matter of much difficulty, or rather impracticable, to walk over this apartment, had not nature, as if studious for the safety of the curious, caused branches, as it were, to shoot from the surface of the rocks, which are remarkably smooth, very unequal, and always damp. These branches are from four to six inches in length, and nearly as thick. They are useful on the summits of the rocks to prevent slipping, and in the sides are ladders, whereby to descend and ascend with tolerable facility. This astonishing anfractuons passage leads to a place far more curious than the rest. On entering into it, one is almost induced to believe oneself situated in an ancient temple, decorated with all the expence of art; yet, notwithstanding the beauty and splendor that catches the eye on every side, there is something of solemnity in the fashion of the place, which must be felt by the most inattentive spectator. The floor, in some parts, is covered with a crystalline substance; the sides, in many places, are incrustured with the same, wrought in a taste not unlike the Gothic stile of ornament, and the top is almost entirely covered with inverted pyramids of the same elegantly white and lucid matter. At the points of these stalactical streets are perpetually hanging drops of pellucid water, for when one falls, another succeeds. These pendent gems contribute not a little to the glory of the roof, which, when the place is properly illuminated, appears as if formed of the purest crystal. Here are three extraordinary and beautiful congelations, which, without the assistance of a strong imagination, may be taken for an organ, altar, and cross. The former, except when strictly examined, appears to be a regular work of art, and is of a considerable size: the second is of a simple form, rather long than square; and the third reaches from the floor to the roof, which must be about twenty feet. These curious figures are owing to water that falls from the upper parts of the cave to the ground, which coagulate into stone from time to time, till it acquired those forms which are now so pleasing; or to an exudation or extillation of petrifying juices out of the earth; or perhaps they partake of the nature of spar, which is a kind of rock plant. The former appears to be the most probable supposition, as these figures, in colour and consistence, appear exactly like the icicles on the top, which are only seen from the wet parts of the caverns; and in this place, there is a greater oozing of water, and a much larger number of petrifications, than in any

other. When you quit this curious apartment, the guides lead you for a considerable way through winding places, until a glimmering light agreeably surprizes. Here the journey, of above a quarter of a mile, through those parts is ended: but upon returning into the first cavern, the entrance into other apartment, less curious indeed, but as extensive as those we have described, offers itself. The passages into some of these are so very low, that there is a necessity of creeping through them; by these we proceed until the noise of a subterraneous river is heard, but farther none have ventured."

Amongst the numerous glens in Ireland distinguished for particular beauty, are two in the county Wicklow. The Glen of the Downs is a pass between two vast ridges of mountains covered with wood, which have a very noble effect; the vale is no wider than to admit the road, a small gurgling river almost by its side, and narrow slips of rocky and shrubby ground which part them: in the front all escape seems denied by an immense conical mountain, which rises out of the glen, and seems to fill it up. The scenery is of a most magnificent character.

The Dargle is a narrow vale, formed by the sides of two opposite mountains; the whole thickly spread with oak at the bottom (the depth is immense): it is narrowed to the mere channel of the river, which tumbles from rock to rock. The extent of wood that hangs to the eye in every direction is great, the depth of the precipice immense, which, with the roar of the water, forms a scene truly interesting. In less than a quarter of a mile, the road passing through the wood leads to another point of view to the right; it is the crown of a vast projecting rock, from which you look down a precipice absolutely perpendicular, and many hundred feet deep, upon the torrent, which finds its noisy way over large fragments of rocks. The point of view is a great projection of the mountain on this side, answered by a concave of the opposite, so that you command the glen both to the right and left; it exhibits immense tracts of forest, that have a most magnificent appearance. Beyond the wood, to the right, are some enclosures hanging on the side of a hill, crowned by a mountain. The solemnity of such an extent of wood, unbroken by any intervening objects, and the whole hanging over declivities, is alone great; but to this the addition of a constant roar of falling water, either quite hid, or so far below, as to be seen but obscurely, unite to make those impressions stronger. No contradictory emotions are raised—no ill-judged temples appear to enliven a scene that is gloomy rather than gay. Falling or moving water is a lively object; this being obscure, the noise operates differently. Following the road a little further, there is another bold rocky projection, from which also a double view to the right and left. In front, so immense a sweep of hanging wood, that a nobler scene can hardly be imagined: the river is at the bottom of a precipice, so steep, and of a depth so great, as to be quite fearful to look down. This horrid precipice, the pointed bleak mountains in view, with the roar of the water, all conspire to raise one great emotion of the sublime. You advance scarcely twenty yards before a pretty scene opens to the left, a distant landscape of inclosures, with a river winding between the hills to the sea. Passing to the right, fresh views of wood appear; half way to the bottom a different one is observed; you are almost inclosed in wood, and look to the right through some low oaks on the opposite bank of wood, with an edging of trees through which the sky is seen, which added to an uncommon elegance in the outline of the hill, has a most pleasing effect. Winding down to a thatched bench on a rocky point, an uncommon scene opens. Immediately beneath is a vast chain in the rock, which seems torn asunder, to let the torrent through, that comes tumbling over a rocky bed far sunk in a channel embosomed in wood. Above is a range of woods, which half overshadow it, and rising to a vast height, exclude every object. To the

left the water rolls away over broken rocks; forming a *comp-d'ail* truly romantic. The path leads to the water's edge at the bottom of the Glen, where is a new scene, in which not a single circumstance weakens the principal character. In a hollow formed of rock and wood (every object excluded but those and water) the torrent breaks forth from fragments of rock, and tumbles through the chasm, rocks bulging over it, as if ready to fall into the channel, and stop the impetuous water. The shade is so thick as to exclude the heavens; all is retired and gloomy; a brown horror breathing over the whole. It is a spot for melancholy to muse in.

FORESTS, OR WOODS.] Tradition and History both inform us, that few countries of equal extent, were better timbered than Ireland; her woods were so abundant,* as to occasion her being called by some of the ancient writers *the woody island*; and their quality was of such repute as to become an article of traffic, and often employed in the most conspicuous buildings of the sister kingdom.—But the natives, repeatedly harried by the inroads and encroachments of the English, frequently found asylum in their forests after unequal combat, from the obdurate swords of their invaders.—These became therefore an object of equal jealousy and vengeance, and the destroying axe generally accompanied the sword, in the joint extirpation of woods and men. Ireland then became denuded; and the long continuance of civil discord, the fluctuation of property and the hopeless despondency, which hung over this devoted Island, have left it destitute of its ancient beauties for many ages. A spirit however has at length gone forth; the encouragement of the Dublin Society, and great example of many noble individuals promise again to cloth the land with its most valuable ornaments. Amongst our needful improvements,† none claims greater attention from the legislature, or landlords individually, than the planting of timber. At present the wants of the nation are supplied from foreign countries, and even the common demands of the husbandman can scarcely be supplied by native timber. It may not be unnecessary to observe here, that it is too common a practice with gentlemen, to complain of the thefts of the poor upon their plantations; but many allowances should be made for such depredations: some parts of the kingdom are badly supplied with fuel; the wretched cottager is therefore in the inclement seasons impelled by necessity to filch from his neighbour, what he cannot otherwise procure. The landlord should therefore hold out every encouragement to the tenant, not only for the planting but the preserving of wood; and in a few years, the pride of being the father of a plantation, and the prospect of its valuable returns, would be such incentives to tenantry, as to raise a new race of planters, and give a new face to the country.

Great benefits may arise from the law, which gives a property in the timber to the planting tenant, especially when that law is made more perfect; but (as has been observed by a writer on this kingdom,) “it is the spirit of the Irish nation to attempt everything by laws, and then leave those laws to execute themselves.”—On the whole, it is from the example of the great landholders, and their encouragement of the tenantry, that this improvement is chiefly to be expected.

VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY LAND AND SEA. } These are in general similar to those of Great-Britain; the unimproved state of Ireland for ages prevented the introduction and cultivation of the numerous tribes of the

* “Through every part of Ireland in which I have been, one hundred contiguous acres are not to be found, without evident signs, that they were once wood, or at least very well wooded. A vast number of the Irish names for hills, mountains, vallies, and plains, have forest, woods, groves, or trees for the signification.” *YOUNG'S TOUR.*

† “I have made many very minute calculations of the expence, growth, and value of plantations in Ireland, and am convinced from them, that there is no application of the best land in that kingdom will equal the profit of planting the worst.” *YOUNG'S TOUR.*

vegetable kingdom, but peace and settlement have now diffused these, as well as other blessings amongst us. Our Wolf-dogs, (once so useful and celebrated) were perhaps peculiar to Ireland; but that species is now nearly extinct. Although the coasts of the neighbouring islands may be furnished with the same varieties of fish; yet those of Ireland have them in much greater abundance, and of a larger and more excellent quality.

METALS, MINERALS, AND } MEDICINAL WATERS. The mines of Ireland, until the destruction of her woods, were worked to a very great extent. At present, altho' abundance of the various species of iron, lead, silver, and copper ores are to be found in every direction thro' the kingdom, yet the want of capital, or skill, or enterprize, is such, that few are worked to any important extent or profit, if we except the great copper mines of the county Wicklow, which are in the hands of an English company.

In several counties are noble quarries of the finest marble, those of Kerry are of various colours, green, red, yellow, and white; and those of Kilkenny black and white; each of which takes the most elegant polish, and are calculated for all the purposes of building or ornament.

Many parts of the kingdom abound with free stone, some of a bright sparkling colour, others of a grey or ash colour, and some approaching to a blue.—Those of Ardbracken, Garrycorris, and the mountains of Wicklow and Dublin, are particularly admired, and much used in public buildings; but the want of inland water carriage, prevents its being sent to the metropolis, in such sizes as are necessary for large columns, &c. which induces a considerable expence for the import of Portland stone.

Various species of coal, and in the greatest abundance, are to be found in different parts of the kingdom. The pits of Kilkenny yield a coal possessing many peculiar properties; it is very hard, burns freely, emits little or no smoke, is of a bright black, and is found to be admirably adapted for melting, and various purposes of manufacture. The pits of Ballycastle, (in the county Antrim) produce a coal somewhat like that of Whitehaven, but swifter and of a more ardent heat; and altho' they are in the greatest abundance, yet the want of a safe and commodious harbour to ship them, prevents their being worked to an extent fully equal to the supply of the nation. The collieries of Tyrone produce a very fine species, and are of considerable capacity; they lie in the heart of a populous and great manufacturing country, where other fuel is very scarce; but the want of a more perfect inland water carriage contracts the operation of the numerous benefits which the situation of these collieries presents. We shall conclude this short account by mentioning the pits of Lough Allen as probably of most importance, they are of such magnitude, are so happily circumstanced by situation, are of so fine a quality, and so intermixed with strata of the purest iron and other ores, as promise, with attention and capital, to be a source of infinite profit and advantage to the nation—placed at the head of the Shannon, which is almost navigable to the sea, were canals opened from the capital and other parts, communicating with this river, they would, in a few years, render the cutting of bogs unnecessary, save large sums now annually sent for foreign coals, and establish manufactures on different parts of these lines of the greatest value and extent.

MINERAL WATERS.] There are great numbers of mineral springs in this kingdom of the various classes recommended for medicinal purposes: such as the vitriolic, alkaline and absorbent, saline and purgative, sulphureous, chalybeate, and sulphurea: chalybeate waters, of which those of the two latter kinds are most powerfully impregnated by the benevolent wilddom of Providence, as efficacious remedies against one of the most prevalent endemics of its northern and moist climate, the scurvy; of

these the most generally resorted to, from their experienced good effects, are the waters of Swanlinbar and Drumahave in the north west quarter, and of Lucan, six miles from the capital. There are also some tepid springs here, the temperature of which, however, is very moderate, that of Mallow in the county of Cork, the warmest of them, not raising Fahrenheit's thermometer above the 68°; but from its mild, soft, and specifically light nature, and being considerably impregnated with an absorbent earth, and a portion of other medicinal matter, has been found serviceable in several classes of diseases. It appears necessary to mention under this head that there are many petrifying lakes and springs in this island, of which Lough Neagh in Ulster is the most remarkable.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The antiquities of Ireland have engaged the enquiries of several learned writers for many years, and much it is said remains yet unexplored. The mass of evidence which has been collected *, to prove the advanced state of the arts in this country, at a very remote period, will greatly facilitate the future researches of the antiquarian, and may at length afford a perfect and a faithful picture of the ancient celebrity of Ireland, highly flattering to the patriotism of her people.

The most distinguished and singular remains of antiquity in this country are the round towers, of which there are at present fifty-one dispersed through different parts of the kingdom †, and in different states of preservation. Various opinions have been entertained, both as to the time when they were built, and their original use; but the circumstance of their being generally near or connected with the ruins of old monasteries or abbeys, affords a strong external evidence of their being employed for some religious purpose. Their antiquity remains yet unascertained.

* By the learned Colonel Vallancey and others, in the *Collectanea de Rebus Hibernicis*, a valuable body of information in Irish history and antiquities. See also the Appendix to the *Philosophical Survey of the South of Ireland*; and the curious and intelligent essays of Mr. Walker, on the *music, dress, &c. of the ancient Irish*.

† The following List will shew their situations:

County ANTRIM, Antrim, Ram Isle in Lough- Neagh.	County FERMANAGH, Devenish, in Lough- Erne.	Killalla, Newcastle near Fox- fort, Turlogh.
County CAVAN, Drumlane, 3 miles from Belturbet.	County GALWAY, Killmacduagh, Melick.	County MEATH, Donaghmore, Kells.
County CORK, Brigoon, Cloyne, Kinneigh.	County KERRY, Ardfert, Rattoo.	County MONAGHAN, Clounish.
County CLARE, Caitree Island in Lough- derg, Shannon, border- ing county Clare, Iniscattery.	County KILDARE, Castle-Dermot, Kildare, Kilcullen.	Queen's COUNTY, Dysart, Timahoe.
County DUBLIN, Michael a poul, Clondalcan, Lusk, Rathmichael, Swords, Taploe.	County KILKENNY, Fertagh, Kilkenny, Kilree, Tulloherrin.	County ROSCOMMON, Oran.
County DOWN, Downpatrick, Drumboe, Mahera.	King's COUNTY, Clonmacnois, Ferbane—two	County SLIGO, Drumcliff Sligo—here were 2 towers of which there are now no remains.
	County LOUGH, Dromiskin, Monasterboice.	County TIPPERARY, Castel, Roscrea.
	County MAYO, Aghagower, Ballagh,	County WATERFORD, Ardmore.
		County WICKLOW, Glendalough—two.

These, and the remains of ancient religious buildings in the valley of Glendalough, at Clonmacnois, and many other parts of the island, exhibit a species of architecture by no means inelegant, yet differing exceedingly from the Gothic orders which were adopted in Britain.

Numerous instruments of peace and war, and many curious and costly ornaments of dress, are every day dug out of our fields and deposited in the cabinets of the curious. These are generally wrought with exquisite skill, and the greater part are originals in their kind; unlike any thing known at present, and of such decided antiquity, that even their uses can rarely be inferred by any analogy derived from things in use at this day.

The *Tumuli*, Moats, or high mounts of earth observed in various parts of the kingdom, are generally ascribed to the Danes*. They were probably raised for different purposes, and employed occasionally as forts to retire to in times of danger, or for assemblies of the people on public occasions; some may have been raised as memorials of battles fought, and others as monuments for distinguishing the personages slain in the field of battle.

The natural curiosities of Ireland have long occupied the attention of travellers and philosophers; but the Giant's Causeway being the most distinguished, we shall give the following account, as the most recent and accurate.

The Causeway itself is generally described as a mole or quay, projecting from the base of a steep promontory, some hundred feet into the sea, and is formed of perpendicular pillars of basalt, which stand in contact with each other, exhibiting an appearance not much unlike a solid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular prisms, of various denominations from four to eight sides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others together.

On a minute inspection, each pillar is found to be separable into several joints, whose articulation is neat and compact beyond expression; the convex termination of one joint, always meeting a concave socket in the next; besides which, the angles of one frequently shoot over those of the other, so that they are completely locked together, and can rarely be separated without a fracture of some of their parts.

The sides of each column are unequal among themselves, but the contiguous sides of adjoining columns are always of equal dimensions, so as to touch in all their parts.

Though the angles be of various magnitudes, yet the sum of the contiguous angles, of adjoining pillars, always makes up four right ones.—Hence there are no void spaces among the basalt, the surface of the Causeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of polygon stones.

The outside covering is soft, and of a brown colour, being the earthy parts of the stone nearly deprived of its metallic principle by the action of the air, and of the marine acid which it receives from the sea †.

These are the obvious external characters of this extraordinary pile of basalt, observed and described with wonder by every one who has seen it. But it is not here that our admiration should cease;—whatever the process was by which nature produced that beautiful and curious arrangement of pillars so conspicuous about the Giant's Causeway; the cause, far from being limited to that spot alone, appears to

* The ingenious and liberal Author of the *Philosophical Survey of the south of Ireland*, however, assigns many strong reasons in support of the opinion of their being anterior to the arrival of the Danes.

† This coating contains iron which has lost its phlogiston, and is nearly reduced to a state of calx; for with a very moderate heat it becomes of a bright red ochre colour, the attendant of an iron earth.

have extended through a large tract of country, in every direction, in so much that many of the common quarries, for several miles around, seem to be only abortive attempts towards the production of a Giant's Causeway.

From want of attention to this circumstance, a vast deal of time and labour has been idly spent in minute examinations of the Causeway itself;—in tracing its course under the ocean—pursuing its columns into the ground—determining its length and breadth and the number of its pillars—with numerous wild conjectures concerning its original; all of which cease to be of any importance, when this spot is considered only as a small corner of an immense basalt quarry, extending widely over all the neighbouring land.

The basalt of the Giant's Causeway is a black, ponderous, close-grained stone; which does not effervesce in any of the mineral acids.

Its specific gravity is to that of water, nearly in the proportion of 2,90 to 1,00—and to that of the finest marble as 2,90 to 2,70.

Though its texture be compact, it is not absolutely homogeneous;—if ground to a smooth surface, its bright jet-black polish is disfigured by several small pores.

It strikes fire imperfectly with a steel.

When exposed to a moderate heat in a common fire, it assumes a reddish colour, which is more vivid on its natural outside covering, and loses about $\frac{1}{10}$ part of its weight*.

In a more intense heat it readily melts, and is, as the chymists express it, fusible *per se*.

With the assistance of an alkali flux it may be vitrified, and forms an opaque glass of a black or blueish colour.

Its principal component parts are iron in a metallic state, combined chiefly with siliceous and argillaceous earths.

Its metallic principle may be demonstrated by a very simple experiment.—Let a small fragment of basalt, in its natural state, be brought into contact, or very near to a good magnetical needle, and it may be made to detain the needle at a considerable distance from its meridian. Let this fragment be touched by a magnet, and it will acquire a pretty strong polarity, capable of attracting or repelling the needle at the distance of an inch or more. From hence it is proved to contain iron in a metallic state, because the calx of that metal is incapable of producing any magnetical phenomena whatever.

To determine the quantity and quality of each constituent part, requires a very slow and laborious operation, which would be almost equally tedious in the description. I shall therefore just mention the results from the experiments of that able chymist, Sir Torbern Bergman, whose authority you will not readily question:

Basalt 100 parts.		
Contains siliceous earth	—	50
Argillaceous earth	—	15
Calcareous earth	—	8
Magnesia	—	2
Iron	—	25
		100

* This loss probably arises from water expelled by the heat. For in the course of twenty-four hours after, it will have nearly recovered its former weight, particularly if it be moistened.

From these elements we shall easily be enabled to account for several of its properties.

Hence it comes to pass that its specific gravity is so considerable, exceeding that of many stones, which, when polished, appear much more compact, the quantity of phlogisticated iron easily making compensation.

We see also why it answers so well for a touchstone, the hardness of its iron particles easily rubbing and fretting off the parts of any softer metal which may be applied to it, and its black ground serving to display these to greater advantage.

Hence too arises its fusibility without addition; for though flint, clay, and calcareous earth are separately refractory, in any degree of artificial heat, yet when mixed together they are readily fusible, and still more easily when united with phlogisticated iron.

From the metallic state of its iron element we are enabled to infer, *a priori*, that the columns of the Giant's Causeway are all natural magnets, whose lower extremity is their north pole. For having stood during many ages in a perpendicular position they must have acquired that polarity which is peculiar to all iron substances, in a similar situation; and like natural magnets, every fragment, when broken, will have its north and south pole. And this I have found true by experience; each pillar of the Giant's Causeway, and each fragment of a pillar, which I applied near to the needle, having its attractive and repellent point.

POPULATION.] Few kingdoms have experienced greater variation in population than Ireland. At some remote period there are reasons to believe that its inhabitants were extremely numerous. In several parts of the island, (in rough or mountainous ground,) difficult of access, and now in a barren state, are evident traces of cultivation; but at what time it prevailed, tradition or history does not inform us. These appearances, however, argue in the strongest manner that the population of the country must have been very considerable during such extended industry, impelled, as it certainly was, by the demand for the fruits of the earth. And it has also been observed, that in several instances where old bogs have been cleared, the furrows of the plow are frequently discovered.

But without entering further into such evidence, we will find from historical accounts, that the state of population experienced considerable vicissitudes. At the commencement of the present century the numbers in Ireland were thought to be about two millions, whereas in 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000.*

The view of modern times however affords a picture more exhilarating. Whoever will attend to the rapid extension of agriculture; the growth of manufactures and commerce, and the general appearance of prosperity, amongst us, will naturally infer that population has had a proportionate increase. We shall therefore endeavour to ascertain, from recent information, what our present numbers are.

From the accounts laid before the House of Commons in 1786, (as returned by the hearth-money collectors,) the number of houses in Ireland amounted to 474,234. Now, adding to that the increase since, and also the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in such returns, we may reasonably conclude that the present actual amount is 500,000.

† See Dr. Hamilton's Letters on the County Antrim.

* From the incorrectness of most editions of Sir William Petty's work, this number is stated as 2,200,000, and so quoted by several writers, whereas, a little investigation will prove it to be but half that number. In Chap. 4, *Political Anatomy*, he says, in 1641 there were 1,466,000; in 1652 but 850,000; which is accounted for, on considering the depopulating influence of recent troubles; and in 1672, he supposes there were 1,100,000.

We are next to consider what average number of persons we should allow to each house. In the peasants cottages in Ireland (perhaps the most populous in the world) Mr. Young in some parts found the average 6 and 6½; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the island of Ragberry, enumerates the houses, and discovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houses, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain several families; and from different accounts, the numbers in such are from ten up so high as seventy*. The averages, however, of different writers on the population of cities vary between 10 and 13.

From such data then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole island at eight persons to each house, which, multiplied by the number of houses, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

LANGUAGE.] The antiquarians and critics agree, that the uncorrupted native language of the Irish is the Gaédhlic, or Scotie, the purest and most ancient of all the Celtic dialects. It appears from unquestionable testimony, that arts, navigation, and letters were first taught in Europe by the Phœnicians, who had a very early intercourse with the Iberian Spaniards. From that nation our Gaédelian or Scottish colony derived their original, who amongst other arts, introduced the elements of letters into the island, at a remote period before the Christian Æra. This fact will easily account for the early use of letters in Ireland, where great security from foreign conquest retained them, and where the manners of the people and the form of government rendered the cultivation of them necessary.

The origin of our letters, and the consequent preservation of our language, being thus accounted for; we may pronounce, in the general, that this Celtic dialect not only answered all the commodious ends of speech; but afforded, in a high degree, the decorations of harmony and strength of expression, which a great genius for poetry or oratory can require, to become master both of his subject and of his auditors. It was copious, with luxuriance; laconic, without obscurity; nervous, pathetic, figurative. This is so well known of some writings which still remain, that a person of taste can never too much admire the force and dignity, the salts and vivacity of their periods; nor can a stranger of a good ear avoid feeling the harmony of their numbers; an easy diction runs generally through the whole, without turgid brilliancy, or affected sublime; those stilt of some moderns, where nature and true genius fail them.

The Lord's Prayer in the Irish Language.

Ar nÁlár a tá ar Neam, nÁmár hÁlár; tÁlár do Ríogáct; deuntar do
ar an Talam, mar do nÁlár ar Neam. Ar nÁlár laetear nÁlár tabár ó Ám a nuó,
agur mar ó Ám ar bÁlár, mar marÁm-ne d'ar bÁlár nÁlár fÁm; agur na lÁlár
ar a bÁlár; áct fÁm ar ó olc. Amen.

AGRICULTURE.] The agriculture of Ireland, though greatly extended and improved within these twenty or thirty years past, is still in a very backward state: for though the quantity of corn has increased to such a degree, that instead of depending, as formerly, on a precarious importation of foreign grain, for the supply of the inhabitants; we not only have a sufficiency for home consumption; but are enabled to export large quantities; yet the mode of cultivation is very defective, the Irish not having yet introduced those improved systems of culture, which have long been pursued with such advantage; in England, and some other parts of Europe.

* Dr. Tisdal enumerated the inhabitants of two parishes in Dublin in 1731, and averaged the number in each house at 12½. The numbers varied from 10 to 70. See Phil. Sur. South of Ir.

There is a variety of causes, to which this imperfect state of agriculture may be attributed; the most striking are the following:—The neglect of the landlords to encourage and instruct their tenantry:—The number of absentees, who feel no pleasure in the creation or the possession of a wealthy industrious yeomanry:—The extreme ignorance and poverty of those, to whom the cultivation of the soil is consigned; their property and information, being frequently much on a level with the common labourers.—From the preceding circumstances, tillage is looked on by those who are possessed of capital, as a laborious, unproductive business, and consequently unworthy their attention.

The land-owners are, undoubtedly, more interested in the spirited cultivation of the soil, than any other order of the inhabitants, as the amount of their incomes must ever depend on the capability of the tenantry; and their capability will always depend on the portion of industry and information they possess.—This is so very obvious, and self-interest is found to be such a powerful stimulus in the human breast, that it is not easy to account for the indolence of the owners of estates in Ireland.

The extension of tillage has been chiefly effected, by the erection of flour-mills:—These answer the purpose of daily markets, where the farmers can dispose of their wheat at all times, at its value; and this value is kept at a reasonable rate, by the influence of the corn laws, that regulate the export and import of grain.—When the average of wheat is 27s. or under, per barrel of 20 stones, there is a bounty of 3s. 4d. per barrel on exportation, and the ports are closed against importation.—When the average rises to 30s. the export ceases, and the ports are thrown open, for the admission of foreign wheat, and so in proportion, with other kinds of grain.—The present Speaker is the father of this regulating system of corn laws; a system which reflects the highest honour on his abilities and patriotism; and from them, the nation derives the double blessing, of never experiencing the misery of scarcity, nor the opposite extreme of over abundance.

The effect which these regulations have had upon the agriculture of the kingdom, will be felt when it is known how frequently, before they were enacted, we were in a state of dependence on other nations for the necessary supply of grain; and how much we have since been able to export from our redundancy. At an average of three years ending 1787, we exported 62,080 barrels of wheat, 333,837 barrels of oats, and 83,711 barrels of barley, besides a proportionable quantity of flour, meal, &c.

The Dublin Society, (ever indefatigable in patriotic exertions,) have not neglected an object of so much importance, as the improvement of agriculture. Their premiums for this purpose have been numerous and liberal; and their frequent discussion of the subject, with publishing the result of their enquiries, have diffused a degree of knowledge and a spirit of emulation, which must be of considerable advantage to the kingdom: they have also erected an extensive range of buildings in Hawkins's-street, where models in various branches of mechanics and manufactures are deposited for the inspection of the public; and all kinds of machines, of the most approved construction made use of in husbandry, are sold at reasonable prices.

When it is considered, that the existence of mankind in some degree depends on the spirited cultivation of the soil; and that a people relying on the industry of their neighbours for the necessities of life, must be poor in the midst of wealth, it is astonishing to find how much this art has been neglected even by those nations that are termed wise*.

* During the administration of Colbert, he turned the attention of the French so much to manufactures and commerce, that agriculture was totally neglected; the consequence that ensued, strongly exemplifies the observation above, for in the prospect of a flourishing trade the people were often reduced to the prospect of famine.

An industrious peasantry are the great sinews of a state; their increase and their happiness should therefore be the constant objects of every wise government, and these are most certainly obtained by permanent protection to the extension of agriculture. In England, a yeomanry is justly denominated "their country's pride;" yet in Ireland the name is scarcely known: there, the face of man gladdens every scene, here, our fairest counties are covered with herds of cattle. He who contrasts the state of the people in the tillage and pasture countries, will find in the former, a reverence for the laws, and the chearful signs of plenty and content:—in the latter, a squalid race of wretched herdsmen, thinly strewn over a land in which they have no interest, knowing little of the laws of God or man, and consequently respecting neither: in the employment of tending herds to feed the rival manufacturers of their country, they never participate in the plenty which surrounds them, but are stinted to the roots of the field, and the luxury of the meager element.—What good or wise man, who thus compares the state of his fellow-creatures, will hesitate which to prefer?

Agriculture is a permanent source of riches: It is an employment more congenial to the nature of man than any other; and is favourable to population and to the growth and preservation of virtue.—When commerce has depraved, and its attendant luxury enervated a nation, the only remains of independance and temperance will be found among those who have been employed in cultivating the earth.

FISHERIES.] Ireland has advantages in the several fisheries not enjoyed by any other country in Europe, particularly in situation, and in her numerous creeks and harbours. Her shores are stored with all the varieties of fish, her fishermen a hardy and adventurous race, and the opportunity of curing on contiguous shores gives them a decided superiority. The parliamentary bounties are upon a liberal scale; are in general judicious, and (under regulations * by which they may be obtained with ease and expedition by the fair claimants) will probably operate to the establishment of fisheries, which instead of being a minor object, will become, perhaps, the first in the trade of Ireland.

These advantages will be greatly aided, when large private capitals are employed; and when the proper markets, the habits of the trade, and correspondences shall be better known and established.

The north-west and western coasts of this kingdom abounding in a superior degree with herrings, have long attracted the national attention and legislative encouragement. The following tables will shew the progress of this fishery for several years, and the influence of the bounties thereon.

* Bounties for the encouragement of fisheries should be regulated in the plainest and simplest manner, being generally claimed by poor men from distant ports, unconnected with office and without protection; the necessary proofs should therefore be easy, and the payment without delay or expence. Vexatious procrastination is peculiarly distressing to them, and productive of most certain discouragements to the fisheries.

An Account of HERRINGS imported from Great Britain, Total of Herrings imported to Ireland, and Irish Herrings exported from the Year 1754 to 1786.

Years ending 25th March.	Herr. imported from Gr. Br.	Herr. imported Total.	Irish Herr. exported.
	BARRELS.	BARRELS.	BARRELS.
1754	13,929	15,558	1,427
1755	29,282	31,051	2,664
1756	28,999	30,277	1,697
1757	28,955	31,035	3,362
1758	29,960	31,330	2,890
1759	23,611	23,735	5,756
1760	17,038	17,039	8,607
1761	20,411	20,554	13,457
1762	21,388	22,233	5,101
1763	23,519	25,676	5,047
1764	14,932	23,594	5,454
1765	14,587	31,617	4,034
1766	35,552	61,283	3,931
1767	12,094	24,713	5,272
1768	16,640	39,903	2,607
1769	11,286	37,134	1,802
1770	22,891	46,547	3,205
1771	12,952	39,734	7,067½
1772	10,445	44,688	3,770
1773	13,471	54,010	3,295
1774	24,824	62,134	5,072
1775	23,194	46,791	7,599
1776	18,947	43,286	15,192
1777	16,651	76,310	17,566
1778	9,778	30,919	13,511
1779	7,291	23,523	11,450
1780	11,526	20,049	16,229
1781	4,207	21,116	15,718
1782	1,816	3,617	26,663
1783	1,272	4,324	48,578
1784	7,750	13,261	23,398
1785	2,647	22,512	35,414
1786	2,360	2,385½	17,188½

An Account of the Number of Vessels entitled to fishing Bounty, their tonnage, and the Bounty paid from the Year ending March 25, 1765, to the Year ending March 25, 1786, both inclusive, also the Bounty paid on Exportation of Herrings in said Period from Ireland.

Years ending 25th March.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Bounty paid.	Bounty paid on Export of her.
1765	Nil	-	-	-
1766	1	94½	94	10
1767	16	777½	777	14
1768	60	3,169½	3,169	4
1769	100	5,801½	5,801	12 6
1770	85	4,510½	4,510	17
1771	309	11,979½	11,979	8
1772	256	9,290½	9,290	12
1773	265	10,168½	10,168	12
1774	187	7,209	7,209	4
1775	371	12,994½	12,994	3
1776	369	13,466½	13,466	18
1777	313	16,281½	16,281	16 6
1778	357	13,075½	13,075	17
1779	366	15,393½	15,393	15 4
1780	408	15,441½	15,441	3
1781	482	18,835½	18,835	8
1782	328	12,439½	12,439	5
1783	540	22,617½	22,617	10
1784	403	16,422½	16,422	19
1785	573	24,575½	24,575	8
1786	370	15,336½	15,336	6

GENERAL ACCOUNT of the Bounty Fishing Vessels, and others, that were at the Rosses Fishery the following Seasons.

	1782.		1783.		1784.		1785.		1786.	
	No. of Ships.	Ton- nage.	No. of Ships.	Ton- nage.	No. of Ships.	Ton- nage.	No. of Ships.	Ton- nage.	No. of Ships.	Ton- nage.
Vessels on the bounty at Rosses.	62	3204	117	6253	184	8407	196	9116	189	8809
Irish vessels not on the bounty	19	1061	15	772	14	766	10	413	14	729
Total of Irish vessels at Rosses	81	4265	132	7025	198	9173	206	9529	203	9538
English - ditto - at ditto	11	645	12	755	19	1054	34	1952	17	815
Scotch - ditto - at ditto	10	555	51	3027	62	6416	75	3694	130	6565
Isle of Man - do - at do	8	430	8	403	20	1040	24	1070	20	849
Total of the Rosses fishery	110	5895	203	11,203	299	17,683	339	16,245	370	17,767

The foregoing accounts are from the official returns to the parliament of Ireland and afford authentic data to ascertain the comparative state of our fisheries at different and recent periods. To this may be added, that from the best information to be obtained, there is reason to believe, that the home consumption has been increased in a very considerable degree.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The corroborating testimonies of natives and foreigners represent the ancient Irish as a people equally learned and pious, and who were resorted to by the most distinguished ranks of distant nations, to participate in the exemplary sanctity*, and improve by the liberal communication of knowledge to be found amongst them.—Camden, the venerable Bede, and other writers, enumerate the benefits diffused thro' various parts of Europe by the numbers of learned men from Ireland, who imparted the early lights of science and of christianity, and founded monasteries in various parts of Britain, France, and Italy. It is observable, that the patron saints of several nations on the continent are acknowledged to be Irish, as were the first professors in the university of Paris, and also those placed by Alfred in his newly-founded college of Oxford.

Few of the writings of the ancient Irish have reached the present times, from the long continuance of civil discord amongst us; such few however as have been published or remain in the hands of the curious, confirm the reputation of their genius and learning. The poems of Columbcil, several miscellaneous pieces translated by the learned Colonel Vallancey and others, but above all the poems of Ossian (which are unquestionably the original production of this country) place the ancient literary fame of Ireland in the highest rank.

A long night of mental darkness succeeded this luminous period in our antiquity:—the several invasions and consequent disorders;—the inroads of the English and frequency of civil war, withdrew the general attention from intellectual improvement, and totally eradicated every vestige of literature from amongst us.—In modern times, the genius of the nation, encouraged by peace and harmony, appears again in the republic of letters; not that knowledge is pursued with that avidity which might be expected from a people so far advanced in civilization as are the higher and middle classes in this country†. The social pleasures, or the gratification of the senses, present more favourite pursuits; and if we except a few of the learned professions, the pau-

* It appears from that very laborious and curious work, the *Monasticon Hibernicum*, that the number of monasteries, abbeys, &c. at one time in Ireland, exceeded a thousand, each with the most liberal endowments; those of Clonmacnoise, Glandalough, Kilmainham, &c. were splendid foundations; and their history throws strong lights on the early state of the kingdom, and the manners of the people. In the elegant preface, the author observes:

“It was towards the close of the 5th century, that St. Patrick established here the monkish profession; simplicity and purity of manners, and the most rigid mortification, were well calculated to inspire Pagans with veneration for such missionaries and their doctrines, and the Irish received, with the rudiments of their faith, a predilection for the monastic state. Congal, Carthag, and Columba, in the sixth century, carried monkery to greater splendor and perfection by their rules and noble foundations, and by their eminent talents, and distinguished zeal; they were the fruitful parents of a numerous progeny of monks, who, in the next century, multiplied to such numbers, that bishop Nicolson, an excellent judge, pronounces them equal to all the other inhabitants of the kingdom. In succeeding ages, every improvement of dress or discipline was quickly adopted here, and the long catalogue of Augustinians, Benedictines, Cisterians, and the rest, grace our monastic annals. Our ancient abbeys and monasteries, adorned with every sculptural and architectural ornament, speak the taste of the times, the public generosity, and the opulence of these communities.”

† The state of morals and information amongst the lower orders demands some attention.—If the opinion is well founded, that “the education of youth should be the business of the state,” it proceeds upon the idea of its importance to the well being of society. In proportion as the mind is improved, and the principles of morality are implanted on the heart, so will the subject be subordinate to the laws, and the great relative duties of mankind be felt and respected by him.

city of general readers is astonishing. The pride of literary eminence is not yet sufficiently felt amongst us. It must indeed be a subject for deep regret, that the obstacles to the advancement of literature in Ireland, are numerous and almost insurmountable; and it is rather to be wondered at, that she has produced so many, than so few, writers of distinction.

"It fares with nations as with individuals. There must be some happy tide of events to swell one nation above the level of its neighbours, either in arts or arms, especially in the former. In a great nation, the genius of individuals will participate of the national greatness; it will in some measure be buoyed above itself. Whereas in a subordinate one, it will be depressed to the low level of the national fate. If Edmund Burke had exerted his talents to the utmost in his native country, he would never have been compared to the orators of antiquity. And if Dr. Johnson had spent his life in the same place, we should not now look up to him, as the Colossus of literature."

The limits of our work, will not permit us to indulge the wish of giving a minute detail of Irish writers and their works, and therefore we shall present the reader with the following sketch.

Usher was a scholar, second to none these islands can boast of, unless we except Selden.—Berkley, bishop of Cloyne, was a writer of very superior talents. He has been called the Irish Plato. His Minute Philosopher is among the standards of the English language. His essay on Vision has extended the boundaries of science; and

If the majority of the lower classes in this country (to which these observations principally apply) do not exhibit these advantages, the deficiency should not be imputed to them, nor undistinguishing censure exaggerate it.—Human nature is the same every where under similar circumstances: unimproved and untutored, it has appeared in forms equally offensive abroad as at home, and the early histories of the most polished nations confirm the fact. Civilization is slow in its progress, and the concurrence of various circumstances is necessary to its advancement; but, unfortunately for the peace and character of the Irish, numerous have been the impediments to it amongst them. Domestic wars, approximating in quick succession, for several centuries, totally opposed it; and when the scene of blood and anarchy seemed to have closed with the Revolution, it was followed by the melancholy train of penal laws, which deprived the great body of the people of teachers, whilst it forbade them the benefit of foreign instruction. "It was the spirit of these laws that shut up the doors of education and the treasures of knowledge—that barbarously forbade them to pass the pale of that ignorance in which all the vices strike their deepest roots—that left to a few who could purchase access to those treasures at such a price, the cruel alternative, either of *perishing for lack of them* like their poorer brethren, or of going in search of them, among nations, hostile to our interests, our religion and our laws".

From these circumstances the dispassionate and philosophical mind will make many allowances, on observing the irregularities of conduct and of principles, which at times may sully the national character; and when the legislature considers the subject with equal temper and philanthropy, a reformation may be easily effected. Heretofore, instead of raising seminaries for instruction, and passing wholesome regulations for promoting sobriety, morality and good manners: instead of turning to various pursuits of industry the natural aptitude of the people by protection and encouragement, we behold too often the accumulation of penal statutes, and the arm of the magistrate annually nerved with new terrors†.

It is full time that some noble comprehensive system of national education should take place amongst us; which once accomplished, the face of the country will assume a new form, the general manners of the people will become amiable, and individual but obscure genius will be distinguished, cherished and rewarded, which now are unnoticed or unknown.—We shall conclude these observations with one of Dr. Priestley's, who says, "That there is no effectual method of restraining vice of all kinds, but by early and deeply inculcating the principles of integrity, honour and religion, on the minds of youth, in a severe and virtuous education." See Lectures on General Policy.

* See an eloquent discourse on this subject, by the Rev. T. L. O'Bierne, Chaplain to his Majesty.

† How different the conduct of the English legislature is, in their backwardness to enact penal laws upon every ebullition of popular misconduct! and it is peculiarly worthy observation, that even after the shocking and disgraceful conflagrations of 1789 in London, no statutes were added to that code; yet in what instance have the people of Ireland so violated the rights or the peace of society?

however whimsical his treatise on the Principles of Human Knowledge may appear, it is unanswerable, except on the Principles of Common Sense.—King, archbishop of Dublin, was a less fanciful, but a more consistent, philosopher than Berkley. His book upon the Origin of Evil is a master-piece. He was a man of wit, and of a sarcastic vein.—Dr. Dodwell, the famous Camden professor of history in the university of Oxford, was of this country, and bred in T. C. D. He was a man of universal erudition, but of an enthusiastic turn of mind.—Leslie of Glaslough was a man of great reading, prodigious memory, and voluminous composition. His short and easy method with the Deists, is esteemed one of the best pieces extant on the subject.—Toland was a writer of opposite principles. A catholic priest originally, he became a deist in religion, and a republican in politics. His scholarship has been arraigned by his antagonists, but he is commended by Mr. Locke as a man of parts and learning.—Clayton, bishop of Glogher, wrote an essay on Spirit, an Analysis of the Works of Lord Bolingbroke, and other books.—Mr. Molyneux* (the friend of Mr. Locke, and champion for the independence of his native country) was a philosopher and mathematician, and reckoned among the first of that scientific age. His Dioptries are highly commended by Dr. Hailey.—Dr. Helsham published an elegant and learned course of lectures, upon the several branches of physics and mechanics.—Dr. Brian Robinson wrote an essay upon that Ethereal Fluid to which Newton alludes in his queries: and also a treatise on the Animal Economy, in which he appears happily to have applied his great mathematical knowledge to the extension of medical science.—Sir Hans Sloane, no less remarkable for his museum than his genius.—Dr. Macbride, who has so successfully applied the theory of fixed air to practice in the cure of the sea-scurvy.—Dr. Young's enquiry into the principal phenomena of Sounds, is a work of great scientific knowledge.—Dr. Hamilton, whose philosophical account of the county of Antrim, and its Basaltes, is highly esteemed.—O'Gallagher, author of an essay on the First Principles of Nature.—Dr. Sullivan's treatise on the Feudal Law, and Constitution of England, is making its way in the good opinion of the world; notwithstanding this avenue to fame had been preoccupied by Dr. Blackstone's Commentaries.—Dr. Hutcheson is the principal Ethic writer of this country. Whilst a teacher of an academy in Dublin, he wrote his books on the origin of our ideas of beauty, and on the passions. These raised his reputation so high, that he was invited to accept the moral chair in the university of Glasgow, which he filled with such celebrity, as to lay the foundation for that fame which Glasgow now enjoys as an Ethic school.—Two of the ablest divines of this country were dissenters from the established church, Mr. Abernethy and Dr. Leland. The sermons of the former upon the Attributes are held to be one of the best systems of natural theology. He was deputed by the dissenters of Ulster to address the Duke of Ormond, in a tour he made when Lord Lieutenant; and his Grace was afterwards heard to say, that, of all the men who ever approached him on like occasions, he was most pleased with "the young man of Antrim."—And Dr. Leland's view of Deistical Writers, and other works, are equally known and admired.—Dr. Dugal wrote presumptive arguments in favour of Revelation, and several volumes of sermons, which have been well received.—The writers who have done the nation most honour in the divinity line are, Synge, Story, Brown, Delany, Lawson, Orr, Skelton, and Ryan, author of 'The Effects of Religion on Mankind.'—Bishop Synge is said to have been a man of great parts and learning; he was author of the Religion of a Gentleman.—Story, bishop of Kilmore, published only some

* This was the writer of that celebrated vindication of his country's rights, *The Case of Ireland*, published at the close of the last century, which alarmed the English government so much, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman.

occasional sermons, but in his treatise on the Priesthood, deep erudition and christian moderation are equally conspicuous.—Brown, bishop of Cork, published some volumes of sermons; he is however more celebrated for his delivery than his composition.—Delany's sermons on the Social Duties are excellent.—Dr. Lawton was a most celebrated preacher. His Lectures upon Oratory, which he delivered in Trinity College Dublin, he gave to the world himself; they shew a nice classical taste, a fine poetical vein, and a thorough knowledge of the art of preaching.

Ireland has her Camden in Ware; and the Ogygia of O'Flaherty seems learned.—Dr. T. Leland, author of the 'Life of Philip of Macedon, a Translation of Demosthenes, Sermons, and a History of Ireland.'—Dr. Crawford's History of Ireland, tho' an Epitome, possesses great merit; and its philosophical liberality and fidelity have done much service to the cause of truth and liberty.—O'Connor's Dissertations on the History of Ireland are held in high estimation, as a production of genius and learning.—O'Halloran's ancient History of Ireland is a work of erudition and deep research: and Curry in his History of the civil wars in Ireland, has contributed to clear up many controverted transactions in those troublesome periods.—There are other writers of some note in the same line; viz. Lynch, author of "Cambrensis Eversus;" McMahon of the "Jus Armacanum;" Peter Lombard, Mr. Harris, Dr. Raymond, Mr. Simon, Luke Wadding, Cusack, White, Stanishurst; several writers of merit in the "Collectanea de Rebus Hibernicis;" the Abbé Geoghegan, who wrote the History of Ireland in French; Walker, author of essays on the Music and Drefs of the ancient Irish, and Archdall of the "Monasticon Hibernicum."—Keating is well known to every reader of Irish History.

Dr. Johnson has drawn the following character of our celebrated countryman, Swift.

"When Swift is considered as an author, it is just to estimate his powers by their effects. In the reign of queen Anne he turned the stream of popularity against the Whigs, and must be confessed to have dictated for a time the political opinions of the English nation. In the succeeding reign he delivered Ireland from plunder and oppression; and shewed that wit, confederated with truth, had such force as authority was unable to resist. He said truly of himself, that Ireland *was his debtor*. It was from the time when he first began to patronize the Irish, that they may date their riches and prosperity. He taught them first to know their own interest, their weight, and their strength, and gave them spirit to assert that equality with their fellow subjects, to which they have ever since been making vigorous advances; and to claim those rights which they have at last established. Nor can they be charged with ingratitude to their benefactor; for they revered him as a guardian, and obeyed him as a dictator.

"In his works, he has given very different specimens both of sentiment and expression. His *tale of a tub* has little resemblance to his other pieces. It exhibits a vehemence and rapidity of mind, a copiousness of images, and vivacity of diction, such as he afterwards never possessed, or never exerted. It is of a mode so distinct and peculiar, that it must be considered by itself; what is true of that, is not true of any thing else which he has written.

"In his other works is found an equable tenour of easy language, which rather trickles than flows. His delight was in simplicity. That he has in his works no metaphor, as has been said, is not true, but his few metaphors seem to be received rather by necessity than choice. He studied purity; and though perhaps all his strictures are not exact, yet it is not often that solecism can be found; and whoever depends on his authority may generally conclude himself safe. His sentences are never too much dilated or contracted; and it will not be easy to find any embarrassment in the con-

plication of his clauses, any inconsequence in his connections, or abruptness in his transitions. His style was well suited to his thoughts, which are never subtilised by nice disquisition, decorated by sparkling conceits, elevated by ambitious sentences, or variegated by far-sought learning. He pays no court to the passions, he excites neither surprize nor admiration, he always understands himself, and his reader always understands him: the peruser of Swift wants little previous knowledge; it will be sufficient that he is acquainted with common words and common things; he is neither required to mount elevations, nor to explore profundities; his passage is always on a level, along solid ground, without asperities, without obstruction.

"In the poetical works of Dr. Swift, there is not much upon which the critic can exercise his powers. They are often humorous, almost always light, and have the qualities which recommend such compositions, easiness and gaiety; they are for the most part what their author intended. The diction is correct, the numbers are smooth, and the rhymes exact. There seldom occurs a hard laboured expression, or a redundant epithet; all his verses exemplify his own definition of a good style, they consist of *proper words in proper places*."

The other principal miscellaneous writers of Ireland are,—Roscommon, author of the ingenious Essay on translated verse, and an excellent translation of Horace's Art of Poetry.—Parnell, the very *delicia musarum*, of whose poetry, above all others, it may be said *decies repetita placebit*.—Burke, on the sublime, &c.—Lord Molesworth.—Lord Orrery.—Earl Nugent.—Mr. and Mrs. Millar.—Dr. Arbuckle, writer of *Hibernicus's letters*, &c.—Molloy, author of a periodical paper in London, called *Common Sense*, &c.—Ogle, who modernized Chaucer's Tales.—Dr. Dunkin, author of a quarto collection of humorous poems, some of which are in three languages, Greek, Latin, and English.—Wood, who published Ruins of Palmyra and Balbec, and an Essay on the genius and writings of Homer.—Robertson, author of an attempt to explain the words *reason, substance*, &c.—Sterne, bishop of Clogher, of a book *de visitatione infirmorum*.—Sterne, the inimitable Sterne, whose Sermons, *Tristram-Shandy*, and *Sentimental Journey*, will be admired whilst feeling and sentiment remain amongst us.—Webb, who enquired into the beauties of painting, &c.—O'Leary, author of several admired Tracts, theological and political.—Pilkington, who published a Dictionary of Painters.—Cunningham, author of several poetical pieces, particularly his natural and deservedly admired Pastorals.—Preston, author of several miscellaneous poems: his "Irregular ode to the moon" claims a first rank in English poetry.—Dr. Clancy, author of the *Templum Veneris*, &c.—Busb, of Socrates.—Johnston, author of *Chrysal*.—Brooke, of the Farmer's Letters, Fool of Quality, *Gustavus Vasa*, &c.—Dr. Sheridan, (in whose family genius seems as hereditary as the name,) author of several pieces for the improvement of the English language, particularly a pronouncing Dictionary; he also published a Life of Swift. His sons are not less celebrated; Brindley's genius, unconfined to the praise of having rivalled the Ciceros and Demosthenes of antiquity, has added new treasures to our Drama, in his *Duenna*, *School for Scandal*, &c. and Charles Francis, his brother, has acquired great credit for his History of the late Revolution of Sweden.—Usher, author of *Clio*, a very ingenious Essay on Taste. Nor should we forget the truly comical G. A. Stevens. To these we might add a list of female writers; Mrs. Sheridan, Mrs. Pilkington, Mrs. Grierison, Mrs. Barber, Mrs. Davies, Mrs. Griffith, Miss Brooke, &c. There are several other living writers, who are not *publici juris*, as their writings are anonymous.

Nor must we, Denham, e'er forget thy strain,
Whilst Cooper's hill commands the neighbouring plain.

Ireland now produces a catalogue of scenic writers, some of whom *sunt clari hodie et qui olim nominabuntur*; but as it depends upon futurity to allot them their respective niches in the temple of fame, we shall only give a list of such as occur to us: Jephson, Bickerstaff, Dobbs, Griffith, Howard, Johnson, Murphy, Macklin, O'Hara, O'Keefe, Mc. Nally, West, &c.—Of her late writers in this line are some, whose names are not yet forgotten; and others whose works shall last as long as the English stage shall hold the mirror up to nature: Earl of Orrery; N. Tate; Concanen; John Kelly, author of the Married Philosopher, &c. Dr. Madden, of Themistocles; Jones, of the Earl of Essex; Morgan, of Philoclea; Hartson, of the Countess of Salisbury, &c. A. Philips; Mrs. Centlivre; Sir R. Steele; Farquhar; Southerne, Congreve, Brooke, and Kelly.

It would perhaps be injurious to the memory of Dr. Goldsmith, to draw his poetical character from his theatrical pieces, though they are replete with the true *vis comica*. His fame must be founded upon his Traveller, Deserted Village, Vicar of Wakefield, and Citizen of the World.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is called Trinity-college. It was founded in 1591, in the reign of Elizabeth; but its original constitution being found imperfect, in 1637 it received a new charter, and another set of statutes, compiled by archbishop Laud. This prelate made several essential alterations in the constitution of the college, the most material of which was the depriving the fellows of the election of their provost, the appointment to that important office being from thenceforth reserved to the crown. To make the fellows some amends for the loss of their first privilege, it was appointed by the new charter that they should be tenants for life in their fellowships, if they remained unmarried, or unprovided with a benefice of more than 10l. in the king's books, whereas by the first charter they were to quit their office in seven years after they became of master's standing. At the same time the number of fellows was enlarged from seven to sixteen, distinguished into seven senior fellows and nine junior, and the number of scholars was augmented to seventy. The government of the college was placed in the provost and major part of the senior fellows, from whose decisions an appeal was given to the visitors, which are the chancellor of the university, or his vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. The provost has a negative voice in all the proceedings of the board of seniors; and to him is also committed the extraordinary power of nominating any candidate to a fellowship (who shall have sustained the whole previous examination) even against the unanimous sense of the other examiners. The only restraint upon him from exerting this privilege is a regard to public opinion, which is sure to take the part of his assessors; and accordingly the right has hitherto been exerted sparingly.

The number of fellowships fixed at present is twenty-two, seven senior, and fifteen junior. The emoluments of a senior fellowship are supposed at present to exceed 600l. yearly. The eldest of the juniors, if no objection lies against him, is elected by the provost and seniors to a senior fellowship within three days after a vacancy is known. But to a junior fellowship admission is obtained only by sustaining publicly one of the severest trials of the human faculties, of which we have any modern experience, or even knowledge from history. The candidates for this office, who must have taken a bachelor's degree in arts, are examined in public hall three days successively, for two hours in the morning, and as many in the afternoon of each day; the first morning in logic and metaphysics, first evening, in all branches of the mathematics; second morning, in natural philosophy, second evening, in ethics; third morning, in history and chronology, third evening, in the Greek, Latin, and Hebrew languages: the fourth day's business is private before the senior lecturer, being the composition of a theme in the morning, and of Latin or Greek verses in the even-

ing. The examination is in Latin, and the days appointed for it are the four days immediately preceding Trinity-Sunday. The examiners who are the provost and senior fellows (or in the absence of any of these, the next in seniority among the juniors) after a scrutiny among themselves in the board-room on Trinity Monday, proceed to give their vote for the candidate or candidates whom they think fittest to supply the vacant fellowships, when, if the provost does not choose to interpose, the vote of the majority of the seniors is decisive; and the successful candidate is presently after sworn into office in the college chapel.

The scholars of the house hold their places at the most for four years only, being obliged to quit them when they become of the standing of a master of arts. Of the seventy scholars, therefore, about twenty go off every year, whose places are filled up by election of the senior fellows on the same day with that of the election to a fellowship. The candidates for scholarships undergo an examination by the senior fellows in the Greek and Latin classics, for three days in the week before Whitsuntide, four hours each day. The scholars of the house, as they are called, are distributed into two classes; fifty scholars, whose emoluments are four pounds per annum, and free commons, and twenty natives, who have twenty pounds yearly, with commons. These last are chosen to native places from the most diligent of the scholars, as vacancies happen.

A spirit of emulation to excel in their studies is scarcely in any place of education so well supported as among the students of Dublin college, owing to the excellent institution of public quarterly examinations. Three of the four terms of the year are closed with a vacation of from three to four weeks each, and the fourth with a long vacation of four months, during which the students have time to prepare themselves for a public examination, that begins the business of the next ensuing term. Two days are allotted to this examination, four hours each day. The examiners are the fellows under the degree of doctor, and the resident masters; the examined are all the undergraduates, distributed into four classes, and each class into divisions of twenty or thirty persons, according to the number of students and examiners. The subjects of examination are all the sciences in which the examined have been instructed to that time, together with the particular portion of the Greek and Latin classics appointed to be read by each class during the term preceding the examination: a Latin theme is also demanded of each person, the second morning of the examination, on a subject given out by the examiner the evening before. The examiners are furnished with lists of the names of the persons they are to examine, with separate columns for every branch of the examination, in which columns they distinguish by technical marks the respective answering of the students, and after the examination make a report of the same to the senior lecturer. These reports, which are called judgments, being submitted to the inspection of the board, are read publicly, a few days after the examinations in the college hall, when they operate powerfully to the credit or disgrace of the parties concerned. Some of these judgments are of so humbling a nature, that the person who has deserved them is not accounted as having answered an examination for that time, a certain number of which examinations he must sustain before he is admitted to the first degree in arts. In Hillary term, the best answerer in each division receives a premium of books, stamped with the college arms, to the value of forty shillings: in the other three examinations, if the person who has before obtained a premium in that year, appears to be the best answerer again, he is honoured with a certificate on vellum in lieu of a premium, which is then adjudged to the second best in the division, in order to spread the flame of emulation more widely. The effect of this judicious distribution of rewards and censures is great, almost beyond conception: nor does any thing seem wanting to the perfection of such a sy-

stem, besides a provision for augmenting the number of examiners in proportion to the daily encreasing demand for them. The whole number of undergraduates in Dublin college scarcely ever falls short of four hundred (the entire number of collegiates on the books being usually above six hundred); and of the undergraduates if more than twenty are thrown into a division, it becomes difficult if not impossible to appreciate their merits justly within the time allotted to the examination. It belongs to others to consider, whether this inconvenience might not be obviated by allotting annual stipends, till they became of doctor's standing, to a certain number of such masters of arts as had missed of obtaining a fellowship after answering for it with reputation.

Besides the two and twenty fellowships, there are on the foundation five royal professorships, divinity, common law, civil law, physic, and Greek. The salary of the divinity professor (who must have been a senior fellow) is 500*l.* per annum: that of the common-law is 360*l.* All the other professors have one hundred pounds per annum each: and there are, besides the already mentioned, professors of mathematics, Oriental tongues, modern languages, oratory, history, and natural philosophy. Incidental emoluments raise the professorship of natural philosophy above most of the others in value, except divinity and common law. The late Sir Patrick Dunn, knight, bequeathed a considerable estate for the support of three professors in medicine, viz. theory and practice of physic, surgery, and midwifery, pharmacy and the materia medica: but the lectures in those branches having been little attended, the wisdom of parliament has of late interposed to carry into more effectual execution in future the intentions of the public-spirited founder. Many are the small exhibitions for the encouragement and support of youth in a place of education, which being situated in a metropolis, must of course be expensive. The students are classed under three ranks, fellow-commoners, pensioners and fizar. The necessary annual expence of a fellow-commoner, cloathing and books included, is about 100*l.* of a pensioner about 70*l.* A fizar receives his commons and instruction gratis: the number of these last is commonly about thirty. It is but justice indeed to this learned body to observe, that its discipline is so good, as in a great measure to prevent complaints of misbehaviour against the students, notwithstanding their youth and numbers, and the many temptations of a great city. And if some inconveniencies do occasionally result from the situation of this college, an impartial enquirer will hardly deny, that they are greatly overbalanced by the opportunity which the same situation affords to the youth of the kingdom for improvement in liberal manners, the effect of which is visible on a comparison between the clergy of the established church of Ireland, and those of the same level in almost any other country.

Vacancies among the fellows of the college are made either by death, or the accepting of a benefice in the church to the value of 10*l.* per annum and upwards in the king's books. The professors also of divinity and common law, must vacate their fellowships to hold these two offices. The college possesses a patronage of about eighteen church livings, all in the province of Ulster, in value from three hundred pounds yearly to upwards of one thousand, for which they are chiefly indebted to the munificence of King James I. to whom they escheated by the rebellion of O'Neill. The supplying these benefices with incumbents as they become vacant, keeps up a tolerable circulation among the leading members of the college; and it is earnestly to be wished, for the good of the established church of Ireland in general, as well as for the particular advantage of the university, that the patronage of this learned body may by all honest means be encreased.

As to the structure, it is unquestionably one of the noblest of the kind in Europe. It extends in front above 300 feet, and in depth 600, and is divided into two nearly

equal squares. The principal front, opposite College-green, which was erected in 1759, is in the Corinthian order, and built of Mountain stone, as are all the buildings in the first square, the east side of which is intended to be ornamented with an elegant steeple and spire near 150 feet high. On the north side is the refectory, or dining hall, a spacious room, with the front ornamented with Ionic pilasters. Connected with this, and projecting into the square, there is now building a chapel, whose front is intended to correspond with that of the opposite theatre. This chapel is connected to the west front by a regular range of buildings for the students; as are those on the south side, till joined with the theatre, which projects into the square. The front of this theatre is ornamented with four columns in the Corinthian order, and pediment, and is greatly admired for its delicacy and elegance: but its connexion with the adjoining buildings is so imperfect, as to lessen much of the effect. It is intended for lectures, examinations, &c. The ornaments of the inner part, particularly the stucco work, are much admired, and in ten compartments therein are placed full length portraits of their present majesties, Queen Elizabeth (the foundress), Primate Usher, Archbishop King, Bishop Berkeley, Dean Swift, Doctor Baldwin, Mr. Moyleux (author of *the Case of Ireland*) and Mr. Grattan.

The inner square is partly composed of plain brick buildings, containing apartments for the students. The south side is entirely taken up by a superb library, supported by a piazza erected in 1732. The inside of the library is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with busts in white marble of Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Demosthenes, Homer, Shakspeare, Milton, Bacon, Newton, Locke, Boyle, Swift, Usher, Earl of Pembroke, and the doctors Delany, Lawson, Gilbert and Baldwin.

Few public bodies have been so much indebted to the munificence of their members, as the university of Dublin has been to the two last mentioned gentlemen, who were contemporaries for many years in the respective offices of provost and vice-provost. Dr. Baldwin, after governing the college for the space of two and forty years, died in 1758 aged upwards of ninety. By his will he bequeathed to the college in real and personal property, to the amount of near 100,000*l.* out of which his executors shortly after purchased, for the use of the body, two advowsons, and founded two new fellowships. Dr. Gilbert enriched the library by a bequest of his books, 12000 volumes, chosen by himself in a long course of years for this purpose without regard to expence, by a valuable collection of MSS. prints and medals; and lastly by 14 marble busts (enumerated above) of ancient and modern worthies, executed by the best masters at a considerable cost. The shelves of the library will contain by computation, 60,000 volumes: two thirds of them are at present full, containing, besides Dr. Gilbert's (which is the best), the entire libraries of the great archbishop Usher, one of the original members of this university, and about 5000 volumes, part of the collection of another fellow of the college, the late Right Rev. Dr. Palliser, archbishop of Cashel.

The printing office is a neat structure, built in the modern taste. The anatomy house is worthy of inspection, as among other curiosities, it contains a set of figures in wax, representing women in every stage of pregnancy. They are executed from real skeletons, and are the product of almost the whole life of an ingenious French artist. They were purchased by the late Earl of Shelburne, who made a present of them to the college.

Exclusive of these buildings we have described, there are several others that deserve notice; but the limits we are confined to will not permit us to enter into a more particular detail. We must however just observe, that several noble additions and improvements are now making to this illustrious seat of learning.

88
 woman, and a monkey, who arrived in with a multitude behind them. Making a hideous noise, and the who had been arguing on their way were so wholly absorbed in the not to take notice for some time. The Monkey, however, in manners, and seemed to take the dignity of the Magistrates. His Lordship having noticed the dignity of the Monkey, called Showman to follow the example at that moment began to exhibit tricks; such as pulling the Showman a cruel, dragging upon his waist, ed to the business of stripping, von having desired that the Showman should be seated, the Showman was the injured parties, and the Showman. His Lordship seemed to think would be as well able to explain of his companions, and this conclusion for while the features of the monkey, the Monkey's were as grave as he now, and then blew his nose, and it on the Showman's whiskers. The Showman, while the Showman, while the Showman, and at the conclusion of a piercing cry. The Showman then Gillman and Atkin's Exhibition, Showman Fair, and while he was in, he recognised the Monkey to purchase him at St. Kitt's. He told the Keeper that he was a monkey, and have it he would give it up, and declared that fairly for £1. The Showman, passion with the Monkey, which such violence by the nose as the animal was growing more and more of the Keeper, held his paw, and piteously. The Lord Mayor for him to decide upon a case, positive assertion on both sides, to the Monkey himself. His Lordship to the Monkey should be placed at each party claiming should nation, in order to ascertain to most attached. The Monkey, it narrowly escaped death from a dog, which has been a common-house. The Lord Mayor, very important adventure, and was of opinion, that was manifested upon the part of the right owner. The desired of the Showman put a piece of saw, and ordered him to shroud this order, the Monkey started, and then threw it in his sight to him. "Jack, make a show." The Monkey instantly showed raised his paw to the top of his head to the Lord Mayor in the presence of the sailor as before. "If any," (said the sailor), there is a which I bored in St. Kitt's, for to wear ear-rings there; his left hook, and part of his tail is used to quarrel with him." The Lord Mayor, "I will all claim to the Monkey. The

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ful, so various, and so opposite, if properly attamped, would in its highest perfection; but when discomposed, sometimes by energy, and often by external adventitious circumstances; they used a spirit of discord, which has uniformly led this unhappy and ruin. The influence of this infernal spirit, with a mul- titude, acceding as well as following, has here deformed the gen- eral that we must descend from public to private life; from the nation; or on the other side, arise from the vassal to the independ- ent those glowing tints which strongly mark the manners of a sequestered spot, untainted by luxury, undisturbed by low am- bled by the agitating hand of oppression, behold the Irish,

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study, the study of our fellow-creatures in Ireland, indeed, it is impossible to overlook it, for the Irishman forces himself on your notice by traits of character so peculiarly striking, as to engage the attention even of the most unobservant.

There is, in the Irish character, a combination of qualities, apparently so opposed to each other, as might puzzle the soundest cranologist: great levity and headlessness, combined with no small share of shrewdness, under a cloak of simplicity: frequent sallies of wit and humour, emanating from a vivacity, often interrupted by periods of depression and melancholy: great activity of mind, with much apparent intolerance of body: resignation, nay cheerfulness under the most trying visitations of Providence, with a marked spirit of resistance to the restraints imposed by human law: fearless of death, impetuous, impatient of injury or insult, revengeful, yet grateful in the extreme for benefits conferred, they will go any length to gratify their vengeance or to testify their gratitude. Such traits evince a character not natural in itself, but distorted by recollections of ancient wrongs, unimproved by education and unrestrained by the influence or example of their superiors: it is a character susceptible of impressions, the best or worst, or as has been long since better expressed by one of themselves, they are a people, "qui mali, nunquam pejores, et bonis meliores vix reperiuntur." With such a people, under judicious management, the statesman, aided by the landed gentry might accomplish any thing: but this combined effort, unfortunately for the country, has not yet been made, though no better opportunity than the present could possibly occur, the heat of party politics having subsided, internal tranquillity being secured, and no foreign war distracting our fears or attention.

Hospitality is another well known attribute of the Irish people, without distinction of rank or degree: if such a disposition be deemed praiseworthy among the higher classes, how greatly is it to be prized as a virtue amongst the lower orders of the community, who, without hope or expectation of recompense, will cheerfully share their poor pittance with the hungry, and houseless stranger. — Such was the character of the Irish peasant, who, even from the rich man, would reluctantly accept of any return for hospitable attentions, and at whose "potatoe bowl the beggar regularly took his seat with a hearty welcome." This characteristic generosity of the Irish peasant, now alas! no longer exists, at least as regards the beggar or houseless stranger. This change in the character of the Irish peasant has not been easily effected, nor did he relinquish his hospitable feelings until he had been sorely afflicted by indulging them: — the destructive prevalence of *FEVER*, and the consequent dread of infection have wrought this change; a contagious Epidemic having for the last two years, entailed more misery and distress upon the poor of Ireland, than any former combination of causes. "Plague, pestilence, and famine," have united to afflict the land, and a cabin is scarcely to be found in the island, which has not to deplore "a father, or first born slain."

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CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] Notwithstanding the baleful effects of various political causes; though luxury enervates; though corruption dissolves and effaces; though extreme misery distorts and deforms; and though a revenue is made to depend in Ireland, on what directly tends to blast the vigour of mind and body; still are the great features, which have at all times characterized Irishmen, plainly discernible by the attentive and impartial observer.

The moisture, the unparalleled temperature of the climate, the vivifying breezes of the west, are here very favourable to animal as well as to vegetable growth. The Irish are inferior to none in bodily strength and beauty, they are perhaps superior to any in pliability and agility of limbs.

Always inclined to manly and martial exercises, they readily confront any undertaking; their bodies are fitted to any climate, or to any difficulty, and from the same source might perhaps be derived, that spirit of heroism which has so eminently characterized them.

Strong intellects, warm fancies, and acute feelings, have generally carried them beyond the line of mediocrity; and whether the depths of science were to be explored, the heights of heroism attained, or sympathy awakened in the inmost soul, Irishmen would be equal to the task. In virtue too they take an uncommon range, and in the paths of vice they are not slow or backward. Even the blunders with which they have been charged by their good neighbours, may have some foundation in truth, if by blunders we are to understand, those quick sallies by which the regular concordance of words is broken and overleaped for something bold and expressive in the thought. But what peculiarly distinguishes the Irish character is, a comprehension of qualities which are seldom found compatible. Sudden ardour; unabating perseverance; universal aptitude; firm adherence; impatience of injury; a long remembrance of it; strength of resolution; tenderness of affection. These outlines of the Irish character, may be filled by the full grown lineaments, which the writers of different ages, and of different countries, have affixed to it. The Irish have been represented, strongly actuated by a thirst of glory; prodigal of life, impetuous, vindictive, generous, hospitable, curious, credulous, alive to the charms of music, constant in love or hatred.

Qualities so powerful, so various, and so opposite, if properly attempered, would exhibit human nature in its highest perfection; but when discomposed, sometimes by too much internal energy, and often by external adventitious circumstances; they have invariably produced a spirit of discord, which has uniformly led this unhappy people to misery and ruin. The influence of this infernal spirit, with a multitudinous train of evils, acceding as well as following, has here deformed the general view of nature; so that we must descend from public to private life; from the statesman to the citizen; or on the other side, arise from the vassal to the independent man, in order to find those glowing tints which strongly mark the manners of the people. In some sequestered spot, untainted by luxury, undisturbed by low ambition, and not distracted by the agitating band of oppression, behold the Irish,

and they shall command your esteem and affection. In their social intercourse how open! how cheerful! through the circle of their acquaintance how ready to oblige! in sentiment how noble! in their general conduct how dignified! Weakness is sure to meet their pity and protection; insolence never fails to rouse them to resistance. The stranger among them forgets his home; his desires are constantly prevented, and are constantly gratified by a pleasing variety. With the ancient Romans, a stranger and an enemy were synonymous; with the Irish it is otherwise, the stranger is a friend.

Virtues so warm and beneficent, naturally expand; and the philanthropy of Irishmen is not chilled in the frigid, or wasted in the torrid zone. Their patriotism too is of the most ardent kind: but its object lies confused, and its progress must therefore be irregular or fruitless. Better then to throw a veil over it, until the rising light of the present age, gives a proper direction to great but misguided passions.

Of the Irish, then, we may conclude, that their capacity is vast, but restrained and abused; their manners amiable when viewed in their native form; and that their virtues are sublime and of the most splendid kind. The lofty traits which distinguish Irishmen, and which may be with justice referred to their nature, are disfigured, it must be owned, and well nigh concealed from view, by many base and odious vices: vices which seem foreign to the nature of Irishmen, and which can be easily traced to known sources,—where the policy of a Machiavel might appear as virtue, and the cruelty of an Alva as mercy and favor!

But the time is not far distant, we may hope, when the ardour of Irish virtue will consume the base alloy by which it is tarnished, and exhibit to the world the character which nature herself has stamped, **THAT OF A GREAT AND VIRTUOUS PEOPLE.**

This character, whilst it brings the national virtues forward to the foreground with the warm colouring of justifiable partiality, is not inattentive to the rank which the darker shades should hold in the picture;—however, to enable the reader to compare it with the light in which we are viewed by the colder judgments of foreigners, we shall present the following touches from the pencil of a respectable English traveller.*

“It is but an illiberal business for a traveller, who designs to publish remarks upon a country, to sit down coolly in his closet and write a satire on the inhabitants. Severity of that sort must be enlivened with an uncommon share of wit and ridicule, to please. Where very gross absurdities are found, it is fair and manly to note them; but to enter into character and disposition is generally uncandid, since there are no people but might be better than they are found, and none but have virtues which deserve attention, at least as much as their failings; for these reasons this section would not have found a place in my observations, had not some persons, of much more slippancy than wisdom, given very gross misrepresentations of the Irish nation. It is with pleasure, therefore, that I take up the pen, on the present occasion, as a much longer residence there enables me to exhibit a very different picture; in doing this, I shall be free to remark, wherein I think the conduct of certain classes may have given rise to general and consequently injurious condemnation.

“There are three races of people in Ireland, so distinct, as to strike the least attentive traveller: these are the Spanish, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Corke, tall and thin, but well made, a long visage, dark eyes, and long

* Mr. Young, in his late Tour in Ireland.

black hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of settlement on the coast of Kerry, which seemed to be overlooked by government. There were many of them in Queen Elizabeth's reign, nor were they entirely driven out till the time of Cromwell. There is an island of Valentia on that coast, with various other names, certainly Spanish. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found the features which are supposed to mark that people, their accent, and many of their customs. In a district, near Dublin, but more particular in the baronies of Bargie and Forth in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is spoken without any mixture of the Irish, and the people have a variety of customs, which distinguish them from their neighbours. The Milesian race of Irish, which may be called *native*, are scattered over the kingdom, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munster; a few considerable families, whose genealogy is undoubted, remain, but none of them with considerable possessions, except the O'Briens and Mr. O'Neil. O'Hara and M'Dermot are great names in Connaught, and O'Donoghue a considerable one in Kerry; but the O'Connors, and O'Driscals in Corke, claim an origin prior in Ireland to any of the Milesian race.

"The only divisions which a traveller, who passed through the kingdom, without any residence, could make, would be into people of considerable fortune and mob. The intermediate division of the scale, so numerous and respectable in England, would hardly attract the least notice in Ireland. A residence in the kingdom convinces one, however, that there is another class, in general of small fortune,—country gentlemen and renters of land. The manners, habits and customs of people of considerable fortune, are much the same every where, at least there is very little difference between England and Ireland, it is among the common people one must look for those traits by which we discriminate a national character. The circumstances which struck me most in the common Irish were, vivacity and a great and eloquent volubility of speech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than any thing we commonly see in England, having nothing of that incivility of sullen silence, with which so many Englishmen seem to wrap themselves up, as if retiring within their own importance. Lazy at *work*, but so spiritedly active at *play*, that at *burling* and other manly exercises, they shew the greatest feats of agility. Their love of society is as remarkable as their curiosity is insatiable; and their hospitality to all comers, be their own poverty ever so pinching, has too much merit to be forgotten. Pleased to enjoyment with a joke, or witty repartee, they will repeat it with such expression, that the laugh will be universal. Warm friends and revengeful enemies; they are inviolable in their secrecy, and inevitable in their resentment; with such a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the secret or person of a man, although that man were an oppressor. Hard drinkers and quarrelsome; but civil, submissive and obedient. Dancing is so universal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing-masters, to whom the cotters pay six pence a quarter for teaching their families. Besides the Irish jig, which they can dance with a most *luxuriant* expression, minuets and country dances are taught; and I even heard of cotillons coming in.—Many strokes in their character are evidently to be ascribed to the extreme oppression under which they live. If they are as great thieves and liars as they are reported, it is most certainly owing to this cause.

"But I must now come to another class of people, to whose conduct it is almost entirely owing, that the character of the nation has not that lustre abroad, which I dare assert, it will soon very generally merit: this is the class of little country gentle-

men* tenants who drink their claret by means of profit rents; jobbers in farms; bucks; your fellows with round hats, edged with gold, who hunt in the day, get drunk in the evening, and fight the next morning. I shall not dwell on a subject so perfectly disagreeable, but remark that these are the men among whom drinking, duelling, ravishing, &c. &c. are found as in their native soil; once to a degree that made them the pest of society; they are growing better, but even now, one or two of them got by accident (where they have no business) into better company are sufficient to *derange* the pleasures that result from a liberal conversation. A new spirit; new fashions; new modes of politeness exhibited by the higher ranks are imitated by the lower, which will, it is to be hoped, put an end to this race of beings; and either drive their sons and cousins into the army or navy, or sink them into plain tradesmen or farmers like those we have in England, where it is common to see men with much greater property without pretending to be gentlemen. I repeat it from the intelligence I received, that even this class are very different from what they were twenty years ago, and improve so fast that the time will soon come when the national character will not be degraded by any set.

"That character is upon the whole respectable: it would be unfair to attribute to the nation at large the vices and follies of only one class of individuals. Those persons from whom it is candid to take a general estimate do credit to their country. That they are a people learned, lively and ingenious, the admirable authors they have produced will be an eternal monument, witness their Swift, Sterne, Congreve, Boyle, Berkeley, Steele, Farquhar, Southerne, and Goldsmith. Their talent for eloquence is felt, and acknowledged in the parliaments of both the kingdoms. Our own service both by sea and land, as well as that (unfortunately for us) of the principal monarchies of Europe speak their steady and determined courage. Every unprejudiced traveller who visits them will be as much pleased with their cheerfulness, as obliged by their hospitality; and will find them a brave, polite, and liberal people."

[RELIGION.] The established religion of Ireland is the Protestant; its ecclesiastical discipline is similar to that of England, and is under four archbishops and eighteen bishops. The four archbishoprics, are Armagh, Dublin, Cashel and Tuam; and the eighteen bishoprics are Clogher, Clonsfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killybegs, Killaloe, Kilmore, Leighlin and Ferns, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

The dissenters are almost as various here as in England; but the most prevailing are the Roman-Catholics, Presbyterians, Quakers, Anabaptists, Moravians, and Methodists, all of whom are tolerated by law.

[CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Ireland is at present a distinct independent kingdom, governed by its own parliaments, and its imperial crown is inseparably annexed by an Irish act of parliament, to that of Great Britain. From the time of the accession of the sovereignty of Ireland, to the kings of England, until the tenth year of the reign of Henry VII. the mode of enacting laws within the English pale in the parliaments of this country, was nearly the same as in England; the king's viceroy summoning and holding parliaments at pleasure, in which were enacted such statutes as were then thought expedient or necessary. But an ill use (as it was then termed) having been made of this power, in particular by Lord Gormanstown, deputy lieutenant in the reign of Edward the Fourth; a set of acts were introduced by Sir Edward Poynings, lord deputy in the reign of Henry VII. thence called Poynings's Laws, and

* This expression is not to be taken in a general sense. God forbid I should give this character of all country gentlemen of small fortunes in Ireland: I have myself been acquainted with exceptions. —I mean only that in general they are not the most liberal people in the kingdom.

passed; one of which, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 4. provided, "That no parliament be hereafter summoned or holden, unless the king's lieutenant then being, shall previously certify to the king, under the great seal of Ireland, the causes and considerations thereof, and the articles proposed to be passed therein; and that after the king in his council of England, shall have considered and approved, or altered said acts, or any of them, and certified them back under the great seal of England, and shall have given licence to summon and hold a parliament, then the same shall be summoned and held, and the said acts so certified, and none other shall be therein introduced, passed or rejected;" in exposition of which, by statute 3d and 4th of Philip and Mary, it was afterwards enacted, "That any new causes or considerations might be certified, even during the session of parliament." But the usage till lately was, that bills were framed in either house under the name of "heads of a bill or bills" and thus were offered to the lord lieutenant and privy council, who, on the usual application, transmitted to the king such heads, or rejected them without any transmissi-

tion. By another of Poyning's laws, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 22. it was enacted that "all statutes before that time passed in England, should be of force in Ireland." From the making of which law, all subsequent English statutes were absurdly supposed to have bound Ireland, if therein named, or included under general words.

About the beginning of the reign of George I. in consequence of its being a question, whether England had a right to make laws to bind this country, which was ready to be disputed by the Irish; an act was passed in the British parliament (6th of Geo. I. c. 5.) whereby it was declared, "That the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably annexed and united thereto, and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, hath power to make laws to bind Ireland."

However this illiberal and unjust usurpation of the legislative rights of Ireland was of short duration. For after the emancipation of the trade of this kingdom in the year 1779, the 10th statute of Henry VII. c. 4. before mentioned was very much altered, by an act passed in the Irish parliament, in the twenty-first and twenty-second years of his present majesty George III. &c. namely, statute the twenty-first and twenty-second Geo. III. cap. 47. By which it is enacted, "That the lord lieutenant and council of Ireland shall certify under the great seal of the same, to his majesty, without addition, alteration, &c. all such bills, and no other, as the parliament of Ireland shall judge to be expedient; that all bills so certified and returned back again under the great seal of England, without any alteration whatever; and none other, shall pass in the Irish parliament." "And that no bill shall be certified into Great Britain, as a cause or consideration of holding any parliament. Provided always that no parliament be summoned or holden, until a licence be obtained from his majesty, for that purpose." And this act of the Irish legislature was followed by a declaration of rights under the form of an address to the throne, not a little strengthened by the spirited and united efforts of the whole Irish nation, who, with one voice and with the very arms in their hands with which they defended themselves from the enemies of the empire, when destitute of their own established forces, who at that time were bleeding in every quarter of the world in the support of the British

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* This act has been extended since to all these subsequent British statutes relative to property and trade in Ireland, by statute 21st and 22d Geo. III. c. 48. (Irish), passed in order to quiet and settle possessions.

standard, firmly demanded and insisted on from the British parliament the restoration of those rights which the tyrannic oppression of their predecessors had wrested from them. While on the other hand, that senate restored to the Irish their legislative, as they had before done, their commercial rights, not only repealing the 6th Geo. I. c. 5. but passing an act renunciatory of their former groundless claim to what they now declared to be the rights of their hitherto oppressed and injured neighbours*.

At present therefore, as was before mentioned, the Irish nation is governed by parliaments of its own, which consist of the king in his legislative capacity, the lords spiritual (22) and lords temporal (now 165), who together with the king (or his viceroy) sit in one house; and the commons (300) composed of knights, citizens and burgesses (elected by the people,) who sit in another; and these in conjunction form the Irish parliament, which alone is empowered with, alone exerts, and alone hath right to exert the privilege of making new, or altering or repealing those laws already made, for the government of this realm. In which the manner of proceeding from the first introduction of a bill into either house till it is transmitted to England by the lord lieutenant in order to receive the royal assent, is nearly the same with that of the British parliament.

In respect of duration, the parliaments of the two countries differ, the parliament of Ireland is at present octennial, and before the beginning of the reign of his present majesty was perpetual: whereas that of Great Britain is septennial.

The common law of England was adopted here by the council of Lismore, in the reign of Henry II. and ever since has been the common law of Ireland; between which and that of England there is hardly any difference, except where the alterations made in it by the statute law of either country, may have produced a slight variation. But, to speak generally, the principles of both are the same, and the decisions of the courts at Westminster are of high authority in guiding the determinations (in similar cases) of the king's courts at Dublin, which in number, superiority, and extent of jurisdiction are similar to those at Westminster, some few and trivial deviations, in the peculiar practice of each court, excepted.

In consequence of the above mentioned restoration of the constitutional immunities of this country, a writ of error no longer lies from the King's Bench in Ireland, to that at Westminster, and the ultimate appeal must now be brought before the Irish House of Peers whose sentence is final and irrevocable.

There are likewise ecclesiastical, and admiralty courts here, as in England, also for the general distribution of justice. The kingdom is divided into five circuits; the principal county towns in each of these are visited twice a year by two of the twelve

* 22 Geo. III. c. 53 — "Whereas, by an act of the last session of this present parliament (intituled, an act to repeal an act, made in the sixth year of the reign of his late Majesty, King George I. intituled an act for better securing the dependency of the King of Ireland upon the crown of Great Britain.) it was enacted, That the said last mentioned act, and all matters and things therein contained, should be repealed.—And whereas, doubts have arisen whether the provisions of the said act are sufficient to secure to the people of Ireland, the rights claimed by them to be bound only by laws enacted by his majesty and the parliament of that kingdom, in all cases whatever, and to have all actions, and suits at law or equity, which may be instituted in that kingdom, decided in his majesty's courts therein finally, and without appeal from thence.—Therefore, for removing all doubts respecting the same, may it please your majesty, by and with, &c. &c. that the said right claimed by the people of Ireland, to be bound only by laws enacted by his majesty, and the parliament of that kingdom, in all cases whatsoever, and to have all actions, and suits at law or in equity, which may be instituted in that kingdom, decided in his majesty's courts therein finally, and without appeal from thence, shall be, and it is hereby declared to be established and ascertained for ever, and shall, at no time hereafter be questioned or questionable."

And then enacts, that no appeal to the English courts shall be received after the first of June 1781.

judges who sit as judges of assize and gaol delivery, alternately, for the hearing and deciding of suits by *Nisi Prius*, and for the trial of prisoners.

To attempt to enter more minutely into a subject, which the ingenuity of the most able lawyers, that have wrote on it, could scarcely contract into a few volumes, would at present be inconvenient, or rather impossible, in a work of this kind, wherein a desire to give a general view of many branches will not permit any enlargement on one.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The important consequences arising from the extension of inland water-carriage seem now to be generally felt and promoted in Ireland. It had been indeed for many years an object particularly favoured by parliament, but till their grants were applied by companies, in aid of private capitals, these great public works were pursued to little general effect, and seldom to much local advantage.

Amongst the canals completed or now prosecuting in Ireland, the most distinguished in consequence and extent, (and the only one which the limits of our work will permit us to notice particularly), is that called the Grand Canal. This canal was commenced in the year 1756, under the direction of parliament and the navigation board, and different grants were made from time to time for carrying it on. But after some years it was observed that little effectual progress was made therein, which led the legislature to hold out encouragement to private subscribers to undertake the prosecution of the work, by granting an aid of one sixth of the sum which should be necessary to expend thereon. Accordingly several noblemen and gentlemen subscribed a capital of one hundred thousand pounds, and were incorporated by parliament in 1772, by the name of the company of Undertakers of the Grand Canal, who were put in possession of all the works which had been previously done at the public expence, and invested with ample powers for the better carrying into execution this important object. After combating a variety of difficulties, enlarging their capital, raising further aids by loan, &c. the line was completed from Dublin to Monastereven in 1786.

This noble canal proceeds from the west end of the metropolis, passes through Sallins, Roberts-town, and Rathangan, and in the neighbourhood of several other towns and villages. It crosses the Liffy on an aqueduct bridge of seven arches, (constructed on the most ingenious and permanent principles) pierces the hill of Downings several hundred yards,—runs through a great part of the Bog of Allen,—and falls into the River Barrow at Monastereven, after a course of 31½ miles. It is navigated by boats of from 30 to 50 tons burthen; and supplied with water throughout the different levels from numerous streams or rivers, viz. the Black-wood-mill, Loughlewhelnan, Brocksals, and Fouraunfan streams on the North; and on the South by the Great Bog, Miler's-town and Donore streams, and the Mill-town river, which is made navigable four miles from the great trunk, and terminates near the Curragh; but that which supplies the capital with such abundance of most excellent water, is the Great Morrell, taken in at the fifteenth lock about twelve miles from Dublin. There are 26 locks on this navigation, (6 double and 20 single), the falls in which vary from 4 feet 3 inches, to 19 feet 7 inches. The summit level is 202 feet 4 inches above the James's-street harbour; 82 feet 9 inches above the river Barrow at Monastereven; and 265 feet above the tide in the Liffy at Dublin*.

These works have been principally conducted and effected by Richard Evans, Esq. engineer, whose integrity and zeal have been rivalled only by the ingenuity and resources he displayed in the course of one of the most arduous undertakings in the history of inland navigation.

* The curious may be gratified with further particulars of this line, by consulting a very ingenious and accurate survey of it, made by Mr. Brownrigg, surveyor.

From this canal a collateral cut to Naas is completed by the Kildare company and several others are meditated; particularly one to Prosperous,—another to Athy, and the tide water in the Barrow,—and another towards the Shannon at Banagher by Edenderry, &c.

The completion of this canal has communicated the most essential advantages to the country through which it passes, and its vicinity, and through a considerable extent of the adjoining countries, reclaiming large tracts of land and bog, encreasing their value, extending agriculture, and manufactures, and conveying the important supplies of flour, corn, coal, turf, &c. &c. by a cheap and expeditious carriage to the metropolis; from whence it transports in return those necessities which render the intercourse of the city and country of such reciprocal benefit.—To these advantages are to be added, the many conveniences afforded to travelling, &c. by the establishing of commodious packet boats on this line, which passing rapidly to different stages every day at stated hours, afford one of the most reasonable, expeditious and social modes of conveyance yet known in any part of Europe.

From the tolls on this navigation, and the profits arising from their packets, a very considerable revenue accrues to the company, whose fortitude and perseverance in effecting this great national work, under the most discouraging circumstances, claim the praise and gratitude of their countrymen. Their success has at length proved from experience, that the effectual mode of conducting canals, is by companies, subscribing rateably to the expence, and procuring from parliament such aid as their importance and utility may entitle them to claim. Undertaken on this principle by the landholders throughout the kingdom, the progress of inland navigation would be conducted with facility, judgment and oeconomy*, and (perhaps) exempt from that spirit of jobbing, which has too long retarded the advancement of national improvement in Ireland.

[DUBLIN SOCIETY.] Ireland has the honour of having formed the first agricultural society in Europe, and has continued to maintain the precedence of its merit also unrivalled. This society originated about the year 1731, and was supported alone by the voluntary subscriptions of its members, amounting to about 1000*l.* per annum; with this fund, and the animating zeal of several individuals, particularly Dr. Madan, and Mr. Prior, (two of the most valuable patriots which any country has produced), they communicated many of those benefits to which the present improving appearance of the nation is in a great degree indebted. But this zeal and this fund would have been insufficient to such important effects, were they not aided by the most enlightened liberality of sentiment, and the purest love of the public interest: these became at length so conspicuous as to excite the attention and insure the patronage of the legislature, who have for several years given them the most liberal grants, which have enabled them to extend their views as well to arts and manufactures as to agriculture. Of late, indeed, parliament seem disposed to confine the society's proceedings to agriculture alone; and the idea which it has for some time pursued, of establishing a repository, for the most approved models of machinery in that line, will certainly promote that important object, and promises to be productive of the most valuable consequences. The school for portrait, ornament, and architect drawing, under the

* The sentiments of Mr. Smeaton (confessedly the first engineer in Europe) on this point are worthy particular notice: "On the head of oeconomy I cannot help taking notice, that there is nothing so conducive thereto as *unanimity*: I have had occasion to observe, that the worst way of doing a thing, if carried on with unanimity, will often be attended with less expences, than the best, if the execution is distracted by a variety of opinions; perfect unanimity in a company consisting of many members, is not to be expected long together; but it would have nearly the same effect, if it was possible for the minority to think themselves bound by the opinion of the majority."

direction of this society, has proved a prolific nursery for the fine arts; having produced a number of geniuses, the boast and ornament of their country, and the admiration of foreigners.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] This subject has at length become of consequence to the people of Ireland. Through the concurrence of various favourable circumstances, the revolution in America, and the embarrassment of Great Britain, Providence seconding the courage and virtue of the people, broke the chains, which trading jealousy and national injustice, had so long imposed upon this country. Whilst the sun of commerce and power in Venice, in Genoa, in Holland, the Netherlands, and other countries rose and set; the kingdom of Ireland, more fruitful in soil, more powerful in people, more fortunate in situation, and more strong in natural resources, was compelled for several hundred years to look on these events, a joyless and indifferent spectator. During that long night of misery to Ireland, were her fields stained with the blood of insurrections rapidly treading on the heels of each other; raised either by a sense of oppression, or fomented by the interested artifices of English ministers and their creatures.—These produced perpetual change and consequent insecurity of property; and confiscation being often the object, was generally the effect of excited disorder. In a country so distracted, manufactures could not take root, and commerce could not flourish. These are the offspring of peace and settlement, which were here experienced but for short intervals till the revolution.

The linen and woollen manufactures seem to be indigenous in Ireland. The former is spoken of in the earliest period of our history*, and the materials of flax and yarn, were even protected from exportation by duties laid thereon so early as the 11th of Elizabeth; the woollen appears not only of equal antiquity, and probably anterior to that of England†, but was encouraged and regulated by various acts of Edward III. Henry VIII. &c. However with the commencement of the seventeenth century, may be dated the first appearance of tranquillity, and the perfect cultivation of the arts of peace; which arose principally from the attention and equal favour shewn to this kingdom by James I. inasmuch as Sir John Davis observes, that the “strings of the Irish harp were all in tune;” effected says he “by the encouragement given to the maritime towns and cities; as well to increase the trade of merchandize, as to cherish mechanical arts.” During this reign, and until the fatal period of 1641, the progress of trade and manufactures was sensible, and the shipping is said to have increased an hundred fold; but the disorders which arose at that time were long felt; manufactures were eradicated, and the manufacturers had fled; so that the principal source of the national wealth for some time after the restoration was the export of live cattle to England; which national folly or personal hatred to the Duke of Ormond, induced the English to prohibit as a “common nuisance,” in the year 1666‡.

* The saffron-coloured linen of the ancient Irish was much celebrated for its beauty, and was used in great abundance in the dress of the natives.

† The estimation of the Irish woollen serges was such, that they were imported into Italy so early as the middle of the 14th century, at a time when luxury and the arts had arrived at a great height in that country. This curious circumstance has lately been ascertained in a very ingenious and satisfactory discourse of Lord Charlemont's on the work of a Florentine author and traveller of that age. See vol. 1. Transactions R. I. Academy.

‡ The words of Sir William Petty (than whom none knew the state of the kingdom better at the time) are very strong, “why should they breed more cattle, since it is penal to import them into England? why should they raise more commodities, since there are not merchants sufficiently stocked to take them of them, nor provided with other more pleasing foreign commodities, to give in exchange for them? and how should merchants have stock, since trade is prohibited and fettered by the statutes of England?”

In the 12th Charles II. the original English navigation act was passed, in which Ireland had an equal participation of its benefits; but subsequent English statutes of that reign had not only unjustly excluded her, but imposed many severe restrictions on the plantation trade, by which we experienced great commercial hardships, till partly removed by the liberation of our trade in 1779; much of its evils however yet remain, particularly in being precluded from landing West India produce, &c. in England from Ireland, which is one of the principal unfair inequalities of trade between the two countries.

Deprived of the export of cattle, which was the only source of her wealth at the time above-mentioned, the nation driven to the utmost distress, had no resource but in working up her own commodities, to which she applied with the greatest ardor. They increased their number of sheep, and pursued the woollen manufacture with such success, that it amounted in value in 1687 to a considerable sum. In that year there were exported 11,360 pieces of new draperies, and 1,129,716 yards of frizes; but the troubles which arose at the revolution shortly after, gave a severe check to the growing prosperity in this line, from which however it began to recover in a few years, when it experienced an almost complete annihilation, by one of the severest strokes of trading despotism ever exercised over a nation.

The commercial restraints of Ireland considered, afforded the principal materials from which this short sketch on our trade has been formed. That work was written at a very interesting period (1779) by one of the most eminent personages in this country, for legal, constitutional, and commercial knowledge, and is composed with great candor and impartiality from such public acts, records, and authorities as are of unquestioned authenticity; yet it appears therein, that from the latter part of the reign of William III. to the late emancipation of our trade, this unfortunate country had experienced a series of the most wanton and impolitic restrictions* from England, equally injurious to the intercourse and prosperity of both.

In 1698† the lords and commons of England addressed King William, to employ his influence in Ireland to "suppress the woollen manufacture therein;" to which he answered the lords, "that his majesty will take care to do what their lordships have desired"—and to the commons he answered "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen trade in Ireland"—and indeed so successfully was this baneful influence employed upon our legislature, that they passed an act laying heavy duties on the export of their woollens to England, where a law was also made in the following year prohibiting our exports to other countries, so that between the two legislatures the manufacture was as completely annihilated as it could be by law.

It would be absurd to pay any attention to the reasons which were assigned in justification of this proceeding; it was in fact the argument of strength and union over weakness and division; and the affectation of giving us exclusive possession of the linen manufacture as a compensation, was only the offering of insult in lieu of rights. We possessed that manufacture, as has been shewn, for ages before, not as the principal, but as second to the woollen, which was considered as the staple; a staple that employed the larger portion of the nation, that clothed her people, and supplied a great and valuable export. "The immediate consequences to Ireland shewed the "value of what she lost; many thousand manufacturers were obliged to leave this

* "Since the year 1740 there have been twenty-four embargoes in Ireland, one of which lasted three years." *Com. Rept. of Ir.*

† In this year petitions were presented to the English parliament, stating a singular grievance suffered from Ireland, "by the Irish catching herrings at Waterford and Wexford, and ruining petitioners' markets." *Eng. Com. Jour. vol. 12.*

" kingdom for want of employment; many parts of the southern and western counties were so depopulated that they have not yet recovered a reasonable number of inhabitants; and the whole kingdom was reduced to the greatest poverty and distress*.

In consideration of this loss we were to get full and unrivalled possession of the linen trade; as if one manufacture was sufficient for the employment of a whole nation, especially where a large majority of it were totally ignorant of the process or habits of the trade, and possessing but little of the necessary material; whilst in the other, the hands were formed even to enviable perfection, and the primum was possessed at home in abundance.—Our women were to become spinners for the English manufacturers, and the richer were to become the clothiers for the poorer nation.

Several years had elapsed before the promised encouragement to the linen was granted; and so wretched a state was it in, in the year 1700, that our exports of linen amounted in value but to 14,112*l*. At length in 1705, on the remonstrance of the Irish House of Commons, representing the ruinous state of the country, the English ports in Asia, Africa and America were open to our white and brown linens, though little advantage could be derived from it, as we were prohibited by an English act of 1670, and another of William III. from bringing in plantation goods, without first landing and paying the duties in England; but indeed the principle of exclusive patronage to our manufacture was soon abandoned, "for the encouragement of this trade in England and Scotland has been long a principal object to the British legislature, and the nation that encouraged us to the undertaking is now become our rival in it."†

The duty laid on our sail-cloth into Great Britain in 1750, violated the imposed contract, cut short that branch of the manufacture, and sends a large sum to foreigners instead of the sister country for the same article; such is national faith!—linen is now the staple of Scotland, and the extent of the manufacture in England is said to be equal to that of the other two kingdoms together‡.—The bounties granted on the export of Irish linens from England in 1743, professed to be intended as a favour, yet it has proved more specious than solid; it ensures so much of the carrying trade to her, and the extension of the same bounties to her own linens has brought forward || her manufacture, so that she sends them to market on better terms than the Irish linens, which are encumbered with double freight, commission, &c. amounting to fourteen per cent. which is so much in favour of English linens out of English ports at a foreign market.

Such was the memorable contract (as it was called) forced on this country in 1699.—It was not to prevent the Irish from underselling at foreign markets, but to prevent their selling at all; and the impolicy has proved more injurious to England than her injustice. The manufactures were forced into France, Germany and Spain, since which, the two latter supply themselves with many sorts of the manufacture; and such has been the progress of the French that they can now undersell the English\$. Thus was it rooted out of a sister kingdom, and planted in foreign; and thus has the legislative wisdom of a manufacturing nation been proved.

Having thus given a short detail of the remarkable occurrences which led to the commercial slavery of Ireland, we shall now turn from a subject, which, however ne-

* Com. Rest. of Ireland. † Com. Rest. of Ir. ‡ Lord Sheffield on the trade of Ir. p 62.

|| The Board of Trade reported in 1780, on the operation of these bounties, that "they forced forwards an extensive linen manufacture in England."

§ See Com. Rest. of Ir.—Dobbs's Essay on Trade—Sir Mathew Dicker.—Evidence on the Com. Prop.—Lassian's Political Arithmetic—The choice of Evils—Young's Tour, &c.

cessary to be known, has ceased to be interesting—and shall take up a view of our trade and manufactures when they became less restricted and of more consequence.

It has been already shewn, that the people of Ireland, deprived of the Woollen, were obliged to confine their sole attention to the manufacture of Linen. As with individuals so with nations, when the public mind is exclusively bent to one object, it cannot avoid succeeding in its pursuit to a considerable degree. An Act of Parliament having passed in Ireland in 1709, enabling the Lord Lieutenant to appoint trustees for the disposal of the revenue granted for the encouragement of the linen manufacture; his Grace the Duke of Ormond accordingly appointed such trustees, composed of an equal number of the principal persons in each of the four provinces, and assembled them on the 10th of October 1711, when the deed of their appointment was read; and they proceeded to the execution of their trust. From this Board, called the *Trustees of the linen and hempen manufactures in Ireland*, has the important object of their appointment received the most zealous and unremitting attention; and to them we are principally indebted for the flourishing state to which the manufacture has attained, and for the character it maintains in all countries. The province of Ulster was the first wherein it was extended; here it was actively taken up by the industrious descendants of the hardy Scotch Colonies settled therein, and still it continues the principal seat of the manufacture. To this it is indebted for the possession of those blessings, which general industry bestows upon a people; superior wealth, superior civilization, superior knowledge, and that independence of mind which such advantages naturally inspire. This is a lesson to a wise legislature, to stimulate them to the universal employment of the people; and must convince them, that the prosperity and happiness of a nation does not depend more on its numbers than its general industry. The other provinces have but a small comparative share, although that of Connaught has been making considerable advances in the coarser branches for some years.

To give the reader a more perfect idea of the progress and importance of this manufacture, we have annexed a view of the quantities exported at different periods; and as the export of Linen-Yarn is in some degree connected with the subject, we have also given a similar view of it.

E X P O R T S.

Years.	Linen Cloth.	Linen Yarn.		
	Yards.	Ct.	qrs.	lb.
1713	1,819,816½	11,802	2	17
1723	4,378,545	15,672	3	17
1733	4,777,076	13,357	2	21
1743	6,058,041	14,169	1	10
1753	10,493,858	23,238		4
1763	16,013,105	34,468		7
1773	18,450,700½	28,078	3	25
1783	16,039,705½	35,812	3	23
1784	24,961,898	33,013	2	15
1785	26,677,647	28,842	1	5
1786	28,168,866	31,062		20
1787	30,728,728	31,049	2	0

A view of this Table, extracted from the Irish Custom-House accounts, proves two very material points to Irishmen; first, that the increase of the manufacture has been steady and progressive; and secondly, that the export of Yarn (our valuable material), has not increased during the last twenty-four years. To these observations we must add another, that whilst our exports to Great-Britain have increased considerably, so have they also to other countries; as may be seen by contrasting the two following periods.

1783— 826,737 Yards.

1787—2,745,412 Do.

It had long been desired, that we should be independent of foreign countries for our supply of Flax Seed, and therefore the Trustees have paid particular attention to that object for many years, in the application of bounties on its growth; the effect of which will be seen by comparing the number of acres sown and claimed for bounty at two periods—premising, that the legislature saw it fit to discontinue the bounty of five shillings per hoghead to foreign Flax Seed imported, and enlarged the bounties for home produce.—The home produce stands thus:

	A.	R.	P.
1780—	1264	2	22
1787—	9765	2	00

Under this head comes properly our notice of the Lawn, Cambrick, and other finer branches of the manufacture, most of which are in a flourishing state.

The Woollen manufacture next claims our attention. It has already been shown that we have been in possession of this manufacture from a very early period; but that the restrictions under which it had laboured for above a century, confined its extent to little more than the cloathing of the peasantry; and although the emancipation of our trade was expected to produce powerful effects upon this manufacture, yet the unrestrained export of our Wool and Yarn, and the home market remaining unprotected, have caused, and must continue to cause, this valuable trade to remain in a very torpid state. It has been urged, that there is not wool enough to supply the kingdom; but the fallacy of this assertion must be seen, when it is known that we were almost entirely clothed with our own wool, at the close of the last century, and that in 1706 the quantity of English Cloth imported did not exceed six thousand pounds in value, consequently it must have been native manufacture which supplied the market. Now when it is considered, that our wealth and the number of inhabitants have greatly increased since that time, it must be allowed, that from the consequent increased consumption of mutton, the number of sheep must have been multiplied in a proportionable degree, and the quantity of wool produced, must be much greater than at any former period. It has been observed indeed, that the great extension of tillage must necessarily have reduced the number of sheep; but on the other hand, it should be considered, that within the last fifty years, very considerable tracts of land have been reclaimed and brought into profit; and that our fleeces in the last century, though finer, yet weighed but two pounds each; whereas they are now averaged at five; so that if the number of sheep should be even no more at the present period than the former, the quantity of wool must be much more than doubled. It is also to be hoped, that when the improved modes of winter-feeding now practised in England, shall be generally pursued here, the increase will be still more considerable. When therefore the wisdom of the legislature shall protect the home market, and restrain the exportation of the primum; and when Wool-staplers shall be encouraged, and Halls built and regulated in proper situations, then we may expect to see the Woollen manufacture what nature intended it should be in Ireland. Considering

the number of difficulties under which the manufacture struggles, it is surprising to observe the excellence to which it has arrived.—Our best Broad-Cloths are little inferior to the English, and our Druggits are much admired. Our Blanketing and Flannels are in high esteem, and the Worsted branches have been brought to great perfection, and may become fit articles for extensive exportation.

Another branch of our trade is in the produce of Cattle, which brings very large returns into the kingdom, although the policy of giving it such unrestricted operation is much doubted and frequently disputed. Our exports in this line consist of beef, butter, cheese, candles, tallow, hides (tanned and untanned) bullocks and cows, hogs, bacon, hog's-lard and pork.—The last article is one of our most increasing and valuable exports, it is the principal among the very few resources of our numerous poor peasantry, as it is almost the only article which brings them money, and being reared without expence, trouble or attention, the returns must be considered as so much clear gain to the nation. The average export for five years, ending 1767, was about 40,000 barrels.—The like ending 1774, was 46,944 Barrels.—The like ending 1782, was 87,085, and in the year 1787 it rose to 101,839.—The exports of beef, butter and some other articles, though always considerable, fluctuate in times of peace and war,—but that of bullocks and cows * has risen of late years to a most alarming height, and is the more important in its consequences since we have become a manufacturing people, as the tanneries, &c. must suffer in the most essential injury, and the industry of the people be deprived of considerable employment. The obvious impolicy of this trade might render it almost unnecessary, and indeed the limits of the work prevent the going into a chain of reasoning on the injury which arises, as well to the revenue, as the industry of the nation, from its continuance. If revenue be of more consequence, it is easy to shew, that even that is injured by this export: for a bullock pays no more duty than a single barrel of beef; and the duties on the hides, tallow, hair, horns, hoofs, bones, &c. are totally lost. The increase of the evil may be observed on stating it at different periods, viz.

The average export of five years, ending 1767, about 500 Heads:			
Do. ———	1774, —	1,088	
Do. ———	1782, —	2,993	
Do. ———	1787, —	12,993	

The export of hides, tanned and untanned, and sundry species of skins is considerable, but equally impolitic with the last mentioned, as the manufacture of all materials should be carried forward as many stages as possible. The complete manufacture of leather into shoes, saddlery, &c. ought to be of great magnitude in Ireland, from the possession of such abundance of the primum; it is therefore to be hoped, that the attention of the legislature will soon be turned to an object of such national consequence, and which of late years affords from England, in shoes, &c. an export of 500,000 lbs.

It is impossible to review this part of our subject, without feeling the most poignant indignation. To see the materials of great manufactures transported without restraint, whilst thousands of our people want bread and employment, naturally suggests the propriety and humanity of transporting these poor wretches also; for it is a fact well known, that the French, American, West-Indian, and other markets,

“ There cannot be worse policy than her exportation of live cattle. On the contrary, she should slaughter her own cattle, and cure the beef for exportation; it is as much a manufacture as linens; although the management of the beef, the hides, the tallow, &c. may not perhaps employ, proportionably, quite so many hands.” LOUIS SHEFFIELD on the trade of Ireland.

are supplied with the unnumbered articles of shoes, boots, saddlery, &c. manufactured in various parts of Great Britain (particularly Scotland), for which the wise Irish cultivate, and supply them with, all the necessary materials.

The silk manufacture is of great importance, but principally confined to the metropolis, probably from its connexion with the fashions.—Several branches have been brought to the highest perfection; our damasks and lutestrings are excellent, and our handkerchiefs are not only superior to English, but are also unrivalled by any nation in Europe. The mixed goods, or tabinets and poplins, have been long celebrated; and the best proof of their superior taste and beauty is, that they are not less admired and coveted abroad than at home; and even by our Rival Sister.

The cotton manufacture is of late introduction, but yet has arrived at great perfection and considerable extent, and proves, that there is a fund of industry and ingenuity in this country, equal to any undertaking, when favoured by the patriotism and encouragement of the legislature. To these and the zeal of several persons of property, are we indebted for the establishment of this new manufacture in several parts of the kingdom.—Considerable sums have been expended on the erection of noble mills and machinery. Our coarser articles are generally able to stand in competition with those imported, and the finer denominations of muslin, &c. are fast approaching to perfection. Several thousand hands are now employed, and there is every reason to believe, that the manufacture has taken root amongst us. Its progress will be seen on inspecting the importations of the wool and yarn at different periods; on an average of three years.

COTTON WOOL.				COTTON YARN.			
	Ct.	q.	lb.		Ct.	q.	lb.
ending 1773	—	2550	3 2	—	2226	0	0
— 1783	—	3236	1 18	—	5405	0	0
— 1787.	—	7153	2 0	—	21615	0	0

The glass manufacture has arisen to considerable consequence within a few years; and the degree of excellence to which it has arrived, has established it in our own, and forced it into foreign markets. Our average imports, of one article alone, may convey an idea of its general increase, viz. that of drinking glasses, which

	Number.
For three years, ending 1773, was	209,222
Do. — 1783, —	22,248
Do. — 1787, —	4,648

This shews the decrease of importation, and the consequent increase of the home manufacture, which is also proved by our export since 1781, until which year we had sent none out of the kingdom.

To those who are acquainted with the state of the paper manufacture, as well as the two preceding, these indubitable facts—the increase of consumption—the improvements in manufacture—and the decrease in importation—prove more than volumes, the policy of protecting our native industry.

The manufacture of paper has been advancing by silent, but steady steps, to great improvement and importance; and from the number of hands it employs, and the small proportion the value of the material bears to the labour, it is certainly of the first consequence to a manufacturing nation.

These are some of the principal manufactures amongst us; most of which appear, from the best evidence, to be daily increasing in extent and improvement. Much however remains to be done to bring into action the numerous unemployed hands

in every part of the kingdom.—The manufactures of stockings, sail-cloth, leather, metals, &c. of which we have such abundance of the materials amongst us, are inexhaustible sources of industry, and earnestly claim the directing hand of the legislature to put them in motion. Ship-building is in a state of unaccountable backwardness, the more to be wondered at, when it is considered, that the materials can be brought in from the North of Europe, nearly as cheap as into any of the English ports; and when our commerce is extending, it is our duty to obtain and preserve as much of the carrying trade as possible:—to which end it seems absolutely necessary, that the Legislature should give to such, &c. some practicable exemptions from duty at importation;—especially those as by a late well-judged law, the trade of this country is more confined than formerly to the navigating of British and Irish ships, in preference to those of foreign built.

Having enumerated our leading manufactures, exports, &c. it is necessary to observe on the principal articles which compose our imports; these generally come to us from or through Great-Britain*, and consist of her manufactures of various denominations, woollens, silks, cottons, mixed goods, haberdashery, manufactures of iron, steel and other metals, groceries, hops, bark, earthen-ware, beer, coals, and an infinite number of other articles; besides the produce of the East and West Indies to a considerable amount. The table annexed will shew the comparative value of this intercourse: but whilst it states the balance to be generally in our favour, there must be thrown into the opposite scale, the remittances to absentees, interest of money lent on Irish estates, pensions, freight and insurance of ships, remittances to regiments on our establishment, &c. &c. amounting in all to above a million and a half, or perhaps two millions sterling.

The annexed tables are extracted from the Irish Custom-House accounts, by which it will upon the whole appear, that the balance is greatly in our favour; but respect for truth, and having no attachment to a favourite system, oblige us to observe, that the English Custom-House accounts (see p. 257, extracted from Mr. Playfair) between the two kingdoms, state the balance generally in favour of England.—This has been accounted for in various ways by different writers, and endeavours made to reconcile the contradiction; the difference however may arise as well from the dissimilarity of

* The people of Ireland continue to complain of the want of reciprocity in their trading intercourse with Great-Britain as well on the subject of malt and beer as a multitude of other articles, not less remarkable; the following SCHEDULE OF DUTIES (extracted from Lord Sheffield's Observations on the Trade of Ireland) on the under-mentioned articles in both countries is selected, in order to convey a more perfect idea of the subject:

Import duties payable in Britain.

£. s. d.

2 0 6½

0 5 11½

29 15 10

65 10 10

65 10 10

0 3 11½

35 15 0

5 6 9½

4 12 1½

All woollen or old Drapery per yard, —
 { Stuffs of all kinds, made or mixed with wool, or new }
 { Drapery, per yard, — }
 { Cotton and Linen manufactures, and Cotton mixed, }
 { for every 100l. value on Oath, — }
 Linen Cloth, printed, for every 100l. value, on Oath,
 Leather manufactures, for every 100l. value, on Oath,
 { Checks, the piece not above 10 yards, besides in Bri- }
 { tain, for every 100l. value on Oath, — }
 Sugar, refined, per Cwt. —
 Starch, per Cwt. —

Import duties payable in Ireland.

£. s. d.

0 0 5½

0 0 1½

9 18 5½

9 18 5½

9 18 5½

0 1 3½

1 13 11½

0 6 5½

Note. The Irish duties above stated are in English money, and to all of them, except Sugar, an additional duty of 5 per cent.

value fixed on the articles in the account, by each kingdom †, as from error, in consequence of the vanity of the exporters of our principal manufacture.—The great use of the table which shews the trade between the two countries, will however remain, as (proceeding on one steady principle of value throughout,) it must incontrovertibly ascertain the comparative state of the trade at different periods, whether the totals are perfectly reconcileable to the English accounts or not.

Value of Goods Exported to, and Imported from, Great-Britain, at different periods.

	Exports.			Imports.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
1700	814,745	15	0	792,473	3	2½
1705	516,771	17	0½	497,794	1	9½
1710	712,497	2	6½	554,247	12	4
1715	1,529,765	14	1½	972,688	9	11½
1720	1,038,381	7	1½	891,678	5	6½
1725	1,053,782	13	11½	819,761	13	3½
1730	992,832	7	0½	929,896	1	2
1735	1,248,410	16	0½	935,849	8	9½
1740	1,259,853	6	8½	849,678	7	10½
1745	1,390,930	8	9½	949,603	15	10
1750	1,069,864	1	2½	920,349	17	0½
1755	1,312,176	2	6½	1,039,911	10	4½
1760	1,450,757	8	6½	1,094,752	12	11½
1765	1,693,197	5	7	1,139,969	4	8½
1770	2,408,838	12	2½	1,878,599	6	11
1775	2,379,858	9	8½	1,739,543	18	4½
1780	2,384,898	16	7½	1,576,635	13	5½
1781	2,187,406	15	0½	2,432,417	13	10
1782	2,709,766	18	2½	2,277,946	10	8½
1783	1,989,290	6	9	2,320,455	18	7½
1784	2,337,273	11	10½	2,400,456	16	4½
1785	2,764,753	1	11½	1,949,074	0	11½
1786	3,039,531	3	5½	2,346,024	1	6½
1787	3,290,521	12	10½	2,326,756	19	2½

Since the opening of the Irish trade, our intercourse with the United States of America, the British colonies, and also to the West-India islands, has been an accession of considerable consequence. To the latter our exports are principally composed of produce, and manufactures of various sorts, and is a trade that promises to increase to a great extent, if not restrained by the illiberal construction of the navigation laws, which prevent our sending the redundancy of our imports into the English markets. The trade to the British colonies consisted of similar exports as to the islands, and will probably rise to equal importance. But with the American states it is expected to be much superior, especially when that country settles and recovers the effects of the late war; and in proportion as our capitals increase, and the habits and knowledge of trade convince us of the advantage and true policy of sending our manufactures properly assorted, merchantable, and made up with integrity.

The trade to Portugal is one of the most important to the kingdom, and constantly produces a considerable balance in our favour: in some years our export of butter

† For example, linens from the ports of Ireland are valued at from 15 to 17 pence per yard—whereas on entering the English ports they are there valued at 8 pence only per yard. This difference in the value set on the same article in the two kingdoms will, in some degree, account for the balance of trade being differently stated by each.

alone has been equal to the whole of our imports from that country, which principally consist of wine, salt, fruit, oil, pot-ash and cork; for which we send in return butter, beef, pork, tallow, cheese, shoes, new and old drapery and fine linens, &c. &c.

The trade with Spain consists of nearly the same articles of import and export as to Portugal, and the capability of improvement and extension is such, from the numerous wants of the great Spanish colonies, that an ample field presents itself to mercantile industry and enterprize.

The late treaty of commerce with France, has not yet had sufficient operation to enable us to form a competent judgment of its effects.—Our exports generally consist of beef, butter, pork, hides, candles, tallow, wheat, flour, biscuit, linens, woollens, shoes, and sundry other manufactures;—and our imports, of wine, brandy, paper, capers, oil, cork, salt, gloves, cambric, &c. The balance of this trade, though fluctuating, has been generally in our favour, and one observation on viewing the comparative state of imports in the article of wine, is worth attention, and may suggest many others, not unfavourable to our country. Wine imported at an average of three years ending 1766 — 4425 tons

Do. 1776 — 3331 Do.

Do. 1787 — 2061 Do.

The trade with Holland and Flanders, consists principally of an export of beef, butter, hides, tallow, linen, new and old drapery, flannels, frize, woollen yarn, &c. and the imports of flax, thread, linseed, and linseed oil, paper, garden-seeds, Geneva, snuff, drugs, dying-stuffs, &c.

The trade with the East Country, includes Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia, the Baltic consists of an export nearly similar to the preceding, and the imports, of iron, timber, deals, tar, train-oil, hemp, flax, bark, &c.

It is to be observed, that whilst the balance of trade is generally in favour of Ireland with most countries, it is the reverse with the East Country.

We cannot close this subject, without a few observations, which naturally arise from a review of it. It has been seen to what malignant causes we must impute the long restrictions on our trade and manufactures, and how much injury ensued to this country and to the general interests of the empire therefrom; and that however they may have improved and extended since their liberation, we have still to complain of the jealousy and want of reciprocity* in our intercourse with Great Britain. Ireland is a fruitful source of materials, but these are all laid at the feet of the British manufacturers, whom we seem more sedulous to serve than ourselves, although they wisely reserve all similar returns at home. Whoever will examine the majority of articles which compose our exports in the foregoing pages, will conclude; that the support of foreign industry was more interesting to us, than the promotion of native; that “our patriotism was a fugitive virtue which had no home, no Ireland” to engross its attention; and that whilst this continues, we must be a poor and dependent people. The king of Ireland is the father of his people, and feels an equal interest in the prosperity of all his subjects; but his representatives and ministers, from the want of enlarged or generous conceptions, have seldom any other objects in view, (when deputed to this country,) than the corruption and debasement of our principles, to preserve our dependence,—to check any national effort which should interfere with a petty town

* In the multitude of instances which might be adduced, one alone must excite many unpleasant sensations, on observing an entry of tabbnetts for Holland, &c. which we dare not send into any of the ports in our Sister Kingdom!

in Britain, or should propose to restrain the export of a material to serve our manufactures, or lay a duty on theirs to protect and encourage our own.

These views are frequently seconded by our own easy credulous nature; and by too many of the great men of the land not feeling their own importance, who instead of maintaining the national claims with becoming dignity, virtue and firmness, are too often seen prostrating their consequence and "dodging at the heels" of a little instrument to the little policy of a mercantile government with all its narrow trading prejudices.

It were to be wished, that these were the only causes which retard the advancement of national industry; but some are immediately within ourselves. Trade is not yet held in that general estimation which it ought; and its professors generally retire from business when their properties are only fit for carrying it on with more effect;—the habits of oeconomy and industry have not been so much cultivated as in England or Holland; the avidity for large and immediate profit is as general as it is impolitic; the licences for spirits which are granted through the kingdom, legalize intoxication, and are followed by a train of melancholy consequences to morals and manners, which reproach, but do not promise to correct, the folly of our laws; although they are blasting the buds of industry which were opening amongst us. Some of these evils, it must be acknowledged, arose from the state of the country before our freedom of trade, when the people had not stable objects to employ their industry, or virtuously engross their attention. It is with the public as with the private mind, if not properly occupied, it is but too apt to vitiate and corrupt.—Combination closes the catalogue of native evils; but, perhaps, owes its birth and nourishment to one of the last, the licence to drunkenness; combination has long been of fatal consequence amongst us, and is aided too often by the supine and criminal relaxation of the executive power; and must continue to act with mortal energy against our manufactures till the laws and the magistrate shall be too strong for its existence.

Value of the Exports and Imports of Ireland, to and from all parts, from 1700 to 1787 inclusive, with the balance of trade for and against.

Average of ten years	Exports.			Imports.			Balance for.			Balance against.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
From 1700 to 1710	553023	16	0	513657	17	2½	39365	18	9½			
From 1710 to 1720	1126670	6	11½	852905	7	11½	273764	19	0½			
From 1720 to 1730	1019809	3	2½	856936	6	8	162872	16	6½			
From 1730 to 1740	1190253	3	4½	885044	8	2	305208	15	2½			
From 1740 to 1750	1485110	18	3	1123373	1	8	361737	16	7			
From 1750 to 1760	2002354	5	10½	1594164	7	1½	408189	18	8½			
From 1760 to 1770	2589002	19	2	2035023	4	2	553979	15	2			
From 1770 to 1780	3125396	8	8	2544264	2	6	581132	6	2			
1780	3012178	13	9½	2127579	9	7½	884599	4	1½			
1781	2896035	7	1	3123031	9	7½				226996	2	6½
1782	3400598	10	8½	2994265	17	8	406332	13	0½			
1783	2935707	17	6½	3007236	17	3½				71528	19	9
1784	3326211	16	6	3343031	13	9½				16819	17	3½
1785	3737068	0	7½	3056394	14	11	680673	5	8½			
1786	3957396	18	11½	3430387	0	2½	527009	18	9			
1787	4238345	13	11½	3417289	11	5½	821056	2	6			

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England, only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence, and so in proportion in the other coins. What the ancient coins of the Irish were, is at present a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty.

BANK OF IRELAND.] The subscribers to the national bank were incorporated by charter in 1783, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of Ireland, and proceeded to business on the 25th June in the same year, upon a capital stock of 600,000*l.* which consisted of 4 per cent. government debentures deposited at par. These debentures were cancelled by government, agreeable to an act of parliament, and an annuity at the rate of four per cent. granted in lieu thereof. In addition to their capital they borrowed 60,000*l.* previous to the opening of the bank, for which they issued debentures at five per cent. and in 1784 a further sum of 40,000*l.* on the like terms.

In this bank are deposited, certain monies received into his majesty's treasury; and by an act passed in 1784, all money lodged in the courts of chancery and exchequer are also to be deposited in the bank.

The first dividend was made in December 1783 at the rate of four per cent. per annum. Since which it has gradually risen to six per cent.

The governors, directors, and officers are annually elected in the month of April. Of the 15 directors 5 must be new. The qualification of the governor, is the actual possession of 5000*l.* stock; of the deputy governor 3000*l.* and of each of the directors 2000*l.*

Under the direction of this company, an office was opened in June 1787, for purchasing light guineas and half guineas, on terms so highly advantageous to the public that it has proved of the utmost utility.

The institution of this bank should be considered as an æra in the commercial prosperity of this country.—The activity, vigilance and prudence with which it has been conducted, have produced the most beneficial effects upon public credit,—have aided the honest enterprizes of the manufacturer,—have established punctuality,—given security to legal suitors,—a new spring to commercial dealing,—and a strong auxiliary to the circulating capital of the nation.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military establishment of Ireland consists of

Four regiments of dragoon guards	684 men
Eight regiments of dragoons	1416
Twenty eight regiments of foot	13132
Total	<u>15,232</u>

To this is to be added the ordnance, which is on a distinct establishment, and is composed of 6 companies, of 50 men each, making in the whole 300.

Of this force, Great Britain may employ seven regiments (or 3283 men) on foreign service at the expense of Ireland; but during the late war the principal part of the army was withdrawn, so that in the year 1777 there were little more than 3000 men left for our protection, as appears from the military savings of that year laid before the House of Commons.

Thus deprived of the national defence, and in expectation of foreign invasion, the singular, but glorious expedient, of volunteer associations, was adopted,—an expedient produced by the necessity of the moment, but ultimately adding a new and brilliant feature to the national character,—and productive of those blessings derived from increased liberty, religious toleration, unshackled commerce, enlarged libera-

lity, restored constitution and a growing sense of our own importance in the scale of nations.

ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.] This order was instituted February 5th, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as Grand Masters of the order, and the Archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the Archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the Dean of St. Patrick the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. The robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit*, 1783 fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. A star of eight points encircles it on the coat.

CITIES, PUBLIC EDIFICES, &c.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in extent, beauty and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. It is situated on the east side of the island, on the river Liffey, near its junction with the sea, in latitude $53^{\circ} 20'$, and is about 270 miles N. W. of London.—To trace out the origin of Dublin, or to point out the time when it was first built, would be a task as difficult as uncertain. What a judicious historian has remarked of nations, is equally applicable to cities. They as well as men arrive at maturity by slow degrees, and the infancies of both are equally destitute of incidents to engage our attention. This certainly, as well as most other cities, received its gradual increase from its favourable situation for trade, the residence of kings, or the concurrence of other advantages. The earliest accounts we have, mention it to have been in former ages a place of considerable importance. Ptolemy who flourished in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year of Christ 140, calls it *Eblana Civitas*: this, without having recourse to fable, gives Dublin a just claim to an antiquity of more than sixteen hundred years: for unquestionably it must have existed for a considerable time before Ptolemy wrote, or he could not immediately have come to the knowledge of it; and Mr. O'Halloran has, in his history of Ireland, given the following authorities in evidence of that opinion—"In the year A. D. 181, Eogan then king of Munster, on a royal tour through his dominions, visited Dublin, which, even in those days, we find called *Atha Cliath Dubhline*, which imports *the passage over the ford of the black-pool*. He found a greater number of ships on the north side of the Liffey, than on the south side; and of course, the revenues of the monarch there were much greater than his own. This relation of the trade of Dublin will be less doubted, when we recollect the evidence of Tacitus*, about a century earlier; and to these we shall add, that in the days of St. Patrick we find it celebrated for its extent and magnificence, the number and riches of its inhabitants, the grandeur of its edifices, and the greatness of its commerce, &c." The next ancient authority concerning Dublin, is in the preface to king Edgar's charter, dated in the year 964, wherein he mentions Ireland, with its most noble city of Dublin.

At the commencement of the seventeenth century the river Liffey was not imbanked by quays on the north side, and only a part of it on the south. The ground now called the Batchelor's-walk, the two Ormond-quays, east and west of Essex-bridge, the Inn's-quay, Arran-quay, and Ellis's-quay, taking up in the whole an extent of ground about a mile and a half, on which is erected a number of handsome houses,

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* Ireland, as it lies just between Britain and Spain, and is capable of an easy communication with the coast of Gaul, would have proved of infinite use in linking together those powerful limbs of the empire. In size it is inferior to Britain, but surpasses the islands in our sea.—In soil and climate, as also in the temper and manners of the natives, it varies little from Britain: its ports and landings are better known, through the frequency of commerce and merchants. *Life of Julius Agricola.*

inhabited mostly by merchants, was then covered with ooze, and overflowed by the tides, except a small part about the king's-inns, which had been a monastery of Dominican friars, where the intended extensive and elegant public offices are now erecting. The extent of that part of the town called Ostmantown, corruptly Oxmantown, was then terminated to the east by Mary's-abbey. From thence north-east to the Ship-buildings, Abbey-street, Mary-street, Britain-street, Sackville-street, Marlborough-street, &c. &c. have since that time been erected. On the other side, to the west, Michans'-church and Church-street, were the bounds; and all westward of them, as far as the Barracks, and Montpelier-hill, containing a great number of streets, &c. have increased on that side. Grange-gorman, Stony-batter, and Glasmanogue, now united to the town, were then villages at some distance from it; in the latter of which places the sheriffs of Dublin have held their courts in the time of the plague, and particularly in the year 1575, as being remote from the city.

On the south side of the Liffey, the city hath been likewise greatly enlarged, since the year 1610. The space of ground now occupied by Crane-lane, Temble-bar, Fleet-street, Lazar's-hill, &c. was then under the dominion of the water; and George's-quay, with a large tract of many acres extending to Ring's-end-bridge, hath been within this century, recovered from that element *. Dame-street contained only a short range of buildings on the north side, and extended no farther than to the precincts of the Augustine Monastery, opposite to the end of George's-lane. The dissolution of that religious house made room for enlarging the city eastward. George's-lane was nearly the extent of the suburbs to the east, and was then but slenderly built and thinly inhabited: in the other parts of the city, the increase of buildings hath been equally great, as from an inspection of the plans will plainly appear.

Thus have we endeavoured to prove the antiquity of Dublin, by laying before the reader the different accounts handed down to us, and described the vast alterations it hath undergone during the last and present century. Let us now turn to a more interesting subject, the view of it in its present state of improvement; in which may be now truly applied to it, the appellation given in the 10th century by King Edgar, as before mentioned, of *Nobilissima Civitas*.

Dublin is equal in magnitude to above one-fourth of London.—From the Royal Hospital at Kilmainham, the western extremity of the city, to the east end of Lazar's-hill, it is two miles and a half long, and its greatest breadth is nearly equal; so that the circumference may be about eight Irish miles: but on account of the irregularity of the buildings in the suburbs, it is impossible to be exact. It lies mostly on a level, or rather low, in respect to the adjacent country; a great part of the old town being built on a marshy foundation. Its increase these last twenty years, is almost incredible: in the year 1754, the return of houses was 12,857, and in 1766, it was 13,194. It now contains at a moderate computation, about 15,000 houses, mostly full of inhabitants, who are estimated at near 200,000 souls, and is daily increasing both in extent and population.

Dublin would have had a commodious and secure station for shipping, if the entrance of the bay had not been so choaked up, that vessels of great burthen cannot come over the bar: but the defects of the harbour are greatly remedied, by a prodigious work of stone, and piles of wood, extending about three miles into the bay. This great and laudable work was undertaken in consequence of a statute made in the 6th of Queen Anne, chap. 2. called the ballast act; but by subsequent statutes and

* About the year 1614, passengers from England, &c. used to land at Lazar's-hill, at the corner now leading to the Low ground, where there was an house for the surveyor and Custom-house officer.

aids, this work has been latterly pursued with more alacrity and effect. At the end of the piles, there is a light-house erected, curiously constructed of hewn stone*. The approach to the city from the harbour exhibits one of the most beautiful prospects imagination can form an idea of: it is a spacious amphitheatre, bounded mostly by a high shore; and the country all round is spangled with white villas, which when irradiated by the sun, has a glorious effect. The city is not seen to advantage from the water, yet the landscape is highly picturesque, being horizoned on the south by mountains, exactly conical, called the Sugar-loaf-hills; and on the north, by the pleasing contrast of an extensive plain, clothed with the most liberal productions of nature, and enriched by the united efforts of art.—

The river Liffey, though navigable for ships of a moderate burden, as far as the old Custom-house, is but narrow, the breadth being in some parts 250 feet, in others only 140. It runs for two miles almost straight through the city, dividing it nearly into two equal parts, forming spacious quays, walled in the whole length of the city. At the breadth of a wide street from the river on each side, the houses are built opposite each other, which has a grand effect. Over the Liffey are erected five bridges, two of them, Effex and the Queen's, are elegant structures; the other three, Ormond, Arran, and Bloody-bridges, have but little to recommend them, besides affording the convenience of passage.

This city is the see of an archbishop, and sends two members to parliament; and the university sends two more. Besides two cathedrals, (Christ's and St. Patrick's) there are eighteen parish churches, viz. St. Paul's, St. Michan's, St. Mary's, St. Thomas', St. Mark's, St. Andrew's, St. Ann's, St. Peter's, St. Bridget's, St. Werburgh's, St. John's, St. Michael's, (now in ruins) St. Nicholas within, St. Nicholas without, (in ruins also) St. Audeon's, St. Catherine's, St. James', and St. Luke's, eight chapels of ease, two churches for French, one for Danish, and one for Dutch Protestants; six meeting-houses for Presbyterians, one for Anabaptists, three for Methodists, one for Moravians, two for Quakers; fifteen Roman-catholic chapels, three nunneries, one Jewish synagogue, and fourteen hospitals. The linen and yarn halls, fifteen public markets for every species of provisions, of which Ormond market is perhaps the first in Europe, and seven public prisons. The Four Courts, consisting of the High Court of Chancery, King's-bench, Common-pleas, and Exchequer, are held here, as also Courts of Prerogative, Delegate, Consistory, and Admiralty; several halls for corporations, &c. one theatre, seven coffee-houses, besides a number of elegant hotels for the accommodation of foreigners.

It would be tedious to enumerate the several spacious streets which have been of late years built in Dublin; Stephen's-green has been long celebrated as a square of uncommon magnitude, and in the opinion of some derives beauty even from the variety or irregularity of its buildings; Merrion-square promises equal or superior celebrity; and Sackville-street, as well as many others, is not equalled even in London.—The east end of the town on each side of the Liffey is extending fast, by several new streets, on a noble scale; and when the bridge which is in contemplation for uniting the line from Grafton to Sackville-street is built, and the various avenues intended to be opened thereto are completed, Dublin will be unrivalled in Europe.

* At the Sheds of Clontarf, directly opposite the Pidgeon-house, there is a Wharf extending a considerable length into the sea, along which fresh water for the supply of shipping in the harbour of Dublin is conveyed. Boats can water from quarter flood to quarter ebb, every tide, with ease and expedition, free of any expence, which is the greater convenience, as boats can go only during short intervals to the higher parts of the Liffey for such supply.—This valuable and patriotic work was effected at the individual expence of Mr. Weekes.

Perhaps no city has improved so rapidly. By an act passed a few years ago, for widening its streets and avenues, and vesting in commissioners a revenue for that purpose, of about 8000*l.* per annum, arising from a duty on coals, great efforts have been made therein, but not with that taste or judgment which might have been expected from the personages appointed to conduct them. Dame-street, which was the first object, has been widened without any apparent attention to levels, to uniformity, to preconceived plan, or principle of proceeding: the south side, from the Exchange to College-green, (and thro' Trinity-street) possesses more of Hogarth's waving line of beauty, than those regular lines which in building communicate such fine effect, and on which the harmony of architecture so much depends. George's-street continues in a mutilated imperfect state, and an opportunity has been passed, by which Dame-street, judiciously improved, and terminated by a perfect view of Trinity-college, might have been made an avenue of uncommon elegance. Whilst these streets remain unfinished, objects of subordinate consequence divide the funds, and the attention of the commissioners, and the public continue but imperfectly accommodated in any.

Formerly this city was remarkably deficient in public statuary, possessing only the equestrian statue in lead of King William in College-green; another of his late Majesty George II. in the centre of Stephen's-green, and that of George I. which formerly stood on Essex-bridge, but now lies unnoticed in the Mayoralty-garden; to which we may add the statues of Justice and Mars over the gates of the upper Castle-yard. Latterly indeed, sculpture (amongst the other arts,) is rising into consequence amongst us. On finishing the Royal Exchange, an elegant statue of his present Majesty, executed in cast copper by Van Nost, was placed in the ambulatory therein, opposite the north front. He is clothed in a Roman military habit, crowned with laurel, and holds a truncheon in his hand. But the works of our countryman Smyth, have not only beautified many of our public buildings, but have at length given a new character to the taste of the nation, to whom it is an honour to have produced so distinguished a genius. The statue of Dr. Lucas placed in the west stair case of the Royal Exchange, is universally allowed to possess great merit, the design being in a masterly stile and the sculpture critically correct. The statues of Justice, Wisdom and Liberty on the pediment of the front of the House of Lords, are after the finest models of antiquity, and the execution is of the first character. The four statues on the attic story over the pediment of the south front of the new Custom-House allegorical of Industry, Commerce, Wealth and Navigation, possess equal merit; but the Arms of Ireland, supported by the Lion and Unicorn, on the four pavilions in the north and south fronts of that building, are in a stile so uncommonly bold and graceful, as to strike the mind with peculiar force; and however eminent the merit of those works we have mentioned, these latter must be considered as the *Chef-d'oeuvre* of Smyth's chisel. In the centre of the north front of the same building are four statues emblematic of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, executed by Mr. Banks of London.

The monumental works in sculpture though few, possess merit; the most distinguished in the cathedral of St. Patrick, is that erected to the late Dr. Smyth, Archbishop of Dublin; it is of the Ionic order, and consists of two columns and four pilasters, with their pedestals and entablature, crowned by a circular pediment, which is filled by a shield bearing his Grace's arms; over the top of the pediment is a mitre. In a niche between the columns is an urn of Parian marble, highly enriched, supported by a pedestal, with a bas relief of his head. Those in the cathedral of Christ Church are the late Earl of Kildare's, which represent the reliet of the deceased, with the late Earl (afterwards Duke of Leinster) and his sister, mourning over the body of

their father; the figures are beautifully sculptured in white marble, by H. Cheere. That of the late Chancellor Bowes is composed of beautiful variegated and statuary marble, and represents Justice, large as life, in a pensive attitude, looking at a medallion, with a head of Lord Bowes in bas relief, on which she leans weeping: the thought is good, and well expressed. The attitude of Justice is exquisitely fine, and Lord Bowes's head in the medallion, is esteemed a great likeness.

The monument erected to that real patriot Prior, has his bust raised on a marble tablet, beneath which stand two boys; one weeping, while the other points to a bas-relief, representing Minerva introducing industry and the arts towards Hibernia, and holding in his hand a scroll, on which is inscribed a short recital of his virtues. The theatre in Trinity College contains a monument to the memory of the late Provost, Dr. Baldwin, which was executed at Rome by our countryman Hewetson, for which the College paid 2000*l*. On a sarcophagus of black and gold marble the monumental subjects are raised: It is composed of three figures of the finest Italian marble; Dr. Baldwin is in a recumbent posture, supported by a female, who personates the University, and an angel holding a wreath, to which it points as the reward of his merits.

The principal and most beautiful remains of antiquity in foreign countries are the Temples for public worship. These have been from the earliest ages of so much consequence to all nations, that the combined efforts of wealth, genius, and labour, have been employed to transmit them to posterity, as monuments of their piety or respect for the Deity they worshipped; and even Ireland, in its antient days, was distinguished for the like ambition. If the metropolis of the kingdom can leave to futurity no better edifices than the present, for the worship of God, the opinion of national munificence on these objects will not be very exalted; and the most that future apologists can say, is, that our devotion was too sublime to lay much stress on the lessible appearances of sumptuous buildings. To the curious, however, it may be subject of enquiry and wonder, on observing, that in no city in Europe, of even inferior consequence and population, are there such inelegant public churches. The long restrictions on some of the dissenters, may plead an apology for the obscurity of theirs; but those for the established religion, when compared with those of other countries*, are (with a few exceptions) in an eminent degree derogatory to the respectability of the national church; several being of the meanest architecture and materials, and others, literally in ruins; insomuch, that some parishes are without the necessary accommodation of a "House of Prayer." Whilst the Legislature, the Law, and the Revenue, are very properly supplied with splendid edifices, becoming their importance—Who are the advocates for similar habitations for the Church?

As there are but two cathedrals in this city, Christ-Church and St. Patrick's, we shall be the more particular in our account of them. Of the former we are informed, that Siricius, the son of Amlave, King of the Ostmen of Dublin, and Donat, Bishop of Dublin, built this church for secular canons, in the middle of the city, about the year 1038, but Laurence O'Toole, Archbishop of Dublin, changed these secular canons into canons regular, of the order of Arras, about the year 1163.—Donat also, besides the nave and wings of the cathedral, erected from the foundation the chapel of St. Nicholas, on the north side of the church. Laurence, Archbishop of Dublin, Richard, surnamed Strongbow, Earl of Strigul, Robert Fitz-Stephens, and Raymond le Gros, undertook to enlarge this church, and at their own charges built the choir, the steeple, and two chapels; one dedicated to St. Ed-

* "There is, indeed, more elegance in any one of the six churches in the little borough of Stamford, than in all the churches of this great city put together." PHIL. S. OF IRELAND.

mond, king and martyr, and to St. Mary, called the White, and the other to St. Laud. We find also another chapel in this church, in the south aisle, adjoining to the choir, first dedicated to the Holy Ghost, but afterwards to Archbishop Laurence after his canonization, and called St. Laurence O'Toole's Chapel.—The prior of the cathedral of Christ-Church, while it continued a regular community, had a seat and suffrage in parliament, among the Spiritual Peers; but, in the year 1541, while Archbishop Brown was in possession of the See of Dublin, King Henry VIII. converted the priory and convent of the cathedral of the Holy Trinity into a deanry and chapter. This new foundation consisted of a Dean, Chantor, Chancellor, Treasurer, and six Vicars-Choral. Robert Castle, alias Painswick, the last Prior, was made the first Dean of it; and the King confirmed to them their antient estates and immunities. Archbishop Brown, anno 1544, erected three Prebends in this church, viz. St. Michael's, St. Michan's, and St. John's: From the time of these alterations, it hath generally borne the name of Christ-Church, though before called the Church of the Blessed Trinity.—King Edward VI. added six Priests, and two Choristers, or Singing Boys, to whom he assigned a pension of 45l. 6s. 8d. per annum, English money, payable out of the Exchequer during pleasure; Queen Mary confirmed this pension, and granted it in perpetuity. In this foundation King James I. made some alterations; so that now there is a Dean, Chantor, Chancellor, and three Prebendaries, viz. St. John's, St. Michael's, and St. Michan's, besides six Vicars-Choral, and four Choristers: He also ordained, that the Archdeacon of Dublin should have a stall in the choir, and a voice and seat in the chapter, in all capitular acts relating to the said church.—The present appearance of this building, is a convincing evidence of its antiquity, as it hath undergone very few alterations since it was first built; the re-building the south-side of the nave, which fell down in the year 1562, being the only material one.

Where the cathedral of St. Patrick is erected, John Comyn, Archbishop of Dublin, demolished an old parochial church, which stood in that place, and was said to have been founded by St. Patrick, and in the room of it erected and endowed the present building in the south suburbs of the city, about the year 1190; in which he placed thirteen prebendaries; which number was afterwards increased to twenty-two, of whom three were added by Archbishop Ferings.—Henry de Londres, or the Londoner, Archbishop Comyn's next successor, erected this church, which was collegiate in its first constitution, into a cathedral, and constituted William Fitz-Guy the first Dean of it, and appointed a Chantor, Chancellor, and Treasurer, to whom he allotted lands and rectories, and made them conformable to the rules of the church of Sarum; so that now the chapter of this church is composed of twenty-six members, viz. the Dean, Chantor, Chancellor, Treasurer, Archdeacon of Dublin, Archdeacon of Glandelagh, Prebendaries of Cullen, Kilmatalway, Swords, Yago, St. Audeon, Clonmethan, Tymothan, Castlenock, Malahithart, Tipper, Monmahonock, Howth, Rathmichael, Wicklow, Maynooth, Tassagard, Dunlaven, Tipperkevin, Donaghmore in Omayle and Hagonyl. Of which number the Prebend of Cullen is united to the Archbishoprick, and the revenues of that of Tymothan were swallowed up, and became lay fee in the time of Archbishop Loftus, the title still continuing.

Fulk de Saundford, one of the successors of Archbishop de Londres, is said to have built St. Mary's chapel in this church, that in the year 1271, he was buried in it, and his statue set over his monument; yet some think that this chapel was erected long before his days. It is now set apart for the use of the French Protestants, under the yearly acknowledgment of twelve pence, who have therein divine service according to the usage of the church of Ireland.—Thomas Minor, Archbishop of

Dublin, re-built part of the cathedral which had been destroyed by an accidental fire; he also built the steeple about the year 1370, and from thence took occasion to use in his seal the device of a bishop holding a steeple in his hand; and by a legacy bequeathed to Dr. Stearne, bishop of Clogher, a lofty spire of stone was erected on the steeple in 1750. Archbishop Talbot instituted six petty canons and as many choristers in this church.—The monuments here, are more numerous than in the cathedral of Christ-Church, but inferior in point of workmanship. In the nave is one to the memory of Doctor Smyth, Archbishop of Dublin, of which we have given a separate description; opposite to it is a neat monument for Dr. Marsh, formerly Archbishop of this see, who left a nobler and more useful memorial of himself than marble,—a valuable library; which, together with part of his estate, for the maintenance of a librarian, he bequeathed to the public. This library is always open to the studious.—In the same nave are three inscriptional slabs of black marble, one to the memory of a faithful servant of Dean Swift's; another lately erected to that of Mrs. Johnson, the celebrated Stella; and the third over the Dean, by a subscription principally supported by Sheridan and Faulkner.—This is the wretched memento raised to the memory of this distinguished patriot and author, whose genius and whose services to this country cannot be too highly prized or too long remembered by Irishmen.

The only modern churches in this city worthy notice, are St. Werburgh's, St. Catharine's, and St. Thomas'. The situation of the latter at the termination of Gloucester-street is very advantageous, but the front being unfinished (though principally built since 1762) we cannot form a proper judgment of the design or effect. The inside of the church is extremely well designed, and decorated by columns of the Corinthian order, which support the gallery: The Communion-table is also enriched by columns in the same order, which rise to the ceiling, and whose cornice is continued throughout the inside: In general the ornaments are numerous though not crowded, and the stucco work is particularly admired.—The situation of St. Werburgh's is very unfavourable to the exhibition of its front. It was originally built at a very early period; the first notice taken of it in the annals of Dublin, is in A. D. 1301, when it was accidentally burned together with a great part of the city; it was again burned in the year 1754, and was repaired in its present beautiful form in the year 1759. The external appearance of this church forms one of the principal ornaments of the city; in the centre of which it is situated. The elevation of the front displays both elegance and delicacy, and is perfect in its proportions; the first story is ornamented by six Ionic pilasters, with their entablature, a grand entrance in the Doric order, and two side doors; the second story is in the Corinthian order, crowned by a pediment, a large window lights the loft, from whence an excellent set of bells are rung, which are placed in the Attic story; here the steeple assumes the form of a square, enriched at each side by two Composite pilasters, with their pedestals and entablatures, and in the centre a clock. This entablature is crowned with pedestal work, supporting an urn on each of the angles, that surround the base of the spire; the height of that steeple and spire is one hundred and sixty feet; the spire is extremely elegant, and has a light appearance; at some distance from the base it is formed into an octagon, and supported entirely by eight rusticated columns in the Composite order, a gilt ball terminates the whole. The spire was erected in the year 1768, and the expences amounting to 913, were defrayed by a bequest of Sir Philip Hoby, Bart. Minister of St. Werburgh's parish, who left 1083l. 6s. 8d. for that purpose, and the remainder to contribute towards erecting an Organ.—The interior parts are in no respect inferior to the external appearance.

Irish

St. Catherine's was built in 1769. The front is of white mountain stone in the Doric order; four semi-columns, with their entablature enriched by triglyphs, support a noble pediment in the centre; at each side, the entablature is continued the entire length of the front, and is supported at each of the extremities by two pilasters; in the centre of the front, between the columns, is a handsome Ionic arched door, with a circular pediment, and in the intermediate space, between the columns and pilasters, is a range of large circular headed windows, neatly ornamented, and judiciously proportioned; on the entablature, at each side of the pediment, is a handsome stone balustrade. The front extends ninety-two feet, and in general possesses a massive and correct simplicity, extremely well calculated for the foundation of a more lofty superstructure.

Having described the principal buildings devoted to the purpose of religion, we shall now proceed to describe the residence of the Viceroy. The Castle of Dublin was originally built by Henry de Londres, Archbishop of Dublin, and Lord Justice of Ireland, who began it in the year 1205, and completed it Anno 1213. In the reign of king John, it was a place of strength, moated and flanked with towers; but the ditch has been long filled up, and the old buildings taken down, except the Wardrobe Tower: Birmingham Tower, at the western extremity of the Castle, was left standing until the year 1775, when it was taken down and re-built in 1777, and is now called Harcourt Tower. It was formerly a place of confinement for state prisoners, and is at present a repository for preserving the ancient records of the kingdom. The upper Castle-yard is an oblong square, and has little to recommend its external appearance in architecture or beauty; the apartments, however, which are occupied by the Viceroy, the Council-Chamber, the Hall of St. Patrick, &c. are worthy a Viceregal Palace. In the lower Castle-yard, are the Treasury, Ordnance, and other offices; and near them are the buildings for keeping the Military stores, with an Arsenal, and Armory for 40,000 men.

The foundation stone of the Parliament-House was laid in 1729, and the building completed in 1739, after the plan of Mr. Cassel, at an expence of near 40,000*l*. This superb pile deserves the greatest praise; it may be happily imitated, but has not as yet been exceeded; and is at this day accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties.—The portico, in particular, is perhaps without a parallel; it is of the modern Ionic order, and had it been finished with a balustrade, and proper figures thereon, it would have done honour to ancient Rome in the Augustan age.—The internal parts have also many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. The House of Commons is of a particular but convenient form; being an octagon, covered with a dome, which it were to be wished, had been raised to a greater height; as it would have added to the magnificence of the building, and at the same time have improved the prospect of the city; but it is so low at present, that a person passing by can scarcely perceive it. It is supported by columns of the Ionic order, that rise from an amphitheatrical gallery, elegantly balustraded with iron, where strangers hear the debates. Near it stands the House of Peers, more remarkable for its convenience than elegance: Here indeed are two pieces of Tapestry well executed by a Dutch Artist; a representation of the Battle of the Boyne, as also that of Aughrim, which have much merit.—In 1788, considerable additions to this House were completed, which form an east front. This front is of the Corinthian order, has a noble portico composed of six columns sustaining a pediment, which whilst it possesses all the lightness and grace of that order, partakes of the boldness and sublimity for which the south front has been so much admired; and the statues placed on the top of the pediment give a finish, and complete the elegance of the effect.—The additions to the House of Commons now building will form a

west front, which is intended to be of the Ionic order.—To render this great pile complete, nothing seems wanting but a north front, whose extent would take in or embrace the new wings, and screen the irregularities which necessarily appear on that side, from a union of so many different plans. And indeed, in point of security, to a building which has cost the nation so much, it should be perfectly insulated. Were this effected, it would render the whole one of the noblest combinations of architectural beauties in the world, and worthy the dignity of a great independent legislature.

Under the head of University we have given an account of the buildings which compose Trinity College.

The courts of Justice or Four-Courts and public offices, next attract our notice. Their situation (on the Inn's-quay) is highly favourable, from the advantage of being seen from the opposite side of the river, but the centre protruding so far forward diminishes the effect by preventing the eye from taking in the whole in one view. The extent of these buildings when complete will be very considerable, occupying the principal part of that Quay. The offices or wings are extensive, and in a stile plain and chaste; those on the west contain the great room in which the rolls of Chancery are deposited, also the Hanaper, King's Bench, and Remembrancer's offices; and those on the east are occupied by the offices of the Court of Exchequer and others. The Courts of Justice form the centre, and are a noble pile of building. The south or principal front, is of the Corinthian order, composed of six columns, with pilasters and pediment. The several courts within, radiate from a large circular hall or area, sixty four feet in diameter, ornamented with Corinthian columns and semi-columns; adjoining the respective courts, are the jury rooms, Judges apartments, &c. erecting from the ingenious design of James Gandon, Esq. Architect, who also superintends the building.

The New Custom-House, from its extent, the multitude and variety of its parts, the ingenuity and comprehension of its design, and the beauty and correctness of the execution, would require a more elaborate detail, than the limits of this work can indulge. It is 209 feet deep by 375 feet in extent, and has the singular advantage of four fronts, which possess as much variety as the nature of the design would possibly admit. The principal or south front is situated towards the river; is composed of pavillions at each end, joined to arcades, which are united to the centre building; the order is Doric, and is finished with an entablature, having a bold projecting modillion cornice. In the centre is a portico supporting a pediment, enriched with a group of figures in alto-relievo: the subject is, Hibernia and Britannia embracing, and holding in their hands the respective emblems of Peace and Liberty; they are seated in a naval car drawn by sea-horses, accompanied by Tritons, followed by a fleet of merchant ships loaded with the produce of different nations, and wafted by the trade winds. On the right of Britannia is Neptune with his trident driving away Envy and Discord. On the Attic-story over the pediment are placed four allegorical statues alluding to Industry, Commerce, Wealth, and Navigation. A magnificent dome which rises 125 feet from the base of the building, finishes the centre, whereon is placed a pedestal supporting a female statue of Commerce. The pavillions at the extremities are terminated with the arms of Ireland in an elliptical shield, decorated with festoons of fruit and flowers, and supported by the Lion and Unicorn, forming a groupe of bold and massive ornament.—The principal entrances are ascended to by flights of steps, and the key-stones of the arches are decorated with Colossal Heads, emblematic of the produce of the principal rivers of Ireland, and the country through which they flow, forming striking characters of each; and are executed in a very bold and masterly stile by Mr. Edward Smyth, a native.—Over the central

columns of the north front, are four statues representing the four quarters of the world, in a very chaste stile, and finely executed by Mr. Joseph Banks of London. The south front is entirely of Portland stone; the other three are of white mountain stone, with their columns, cornices, architraves of windows, &c. of Portland. The Long-room is 65 feet by 70, and 30 feet high, and has a row of columns on each side, within which the Clerks do business. The whole is composed of large and striking features, forming a novel and agreeable assemblage of well-contrasted lines. The simple arrangement of its minuter parts, and the accessory ornaments, are judiciously chosen, well adapted to the subject, and form that harmony which contributes to the general effect by assisting its light and shade. The foundations of this building were laid in 1781, and the whole is from the designs of James Gandon, Esq. Architect, who also conducted the execution.—The estimate was 163,363*l.* but as numerous unforeseen incidents must be added, with furnishing the offices, &c. the total expense will probably amount to, or exceed, 200,000*l.*

The Royal Exchange, situated in the centre of the city, near the Castle, and opposite Parliament-street, and Essex-bridge, of which it commands a pleasing view, is a most magnificent edifice, and justly claims the admiration of foreigners, being perhaps the most elegant structure of its kind in Europe. It was begun in the year 1769, and the first stone was laid by his Excellency George Lord Viscount Townshend, then Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. The building was designed by Mr. Cooley, and opened for transacting business, in the beginning of the year 1779, being ten years in erecting. The expences, amounting to about 40,000*l.* were defrayed by lottery schemes, conducted by the merchants of Dublin, with an integrity, that will do them infinite honour.

The form of this beautiful edifice, is nearly a square, having three fronts of Portland stone, in the Corinthian order, crowned by a dome in the centre of the building. The north front is the most perfect: a range of six columns, with their correspondent pilasters, and entablature, sustain a noble pediment, highly decorated; at each side, in the same range, are two pilasters. On account of the acclivity of the ground on which the Exchange stands, the entrance is by a large flight of steps, and before it, is a handsome balustrade supported by rustic work.—The west front varies but little from the north front, except the want of a pediment: a regular range of Corinthian pilasters, with their entablature, is continued throughout the three fronts, and supports an elegant balustrade, which is only interrupted by the pediment in the north front: in the centre of the west side, is a projection of the entablature, supported by four columns.—The inside of this edifice, possesses beauties that cannot be clearly expressed by words, being a great curiosity to those who have a taste for architecture. The dome is spacious, lofty, and noble, and is supported by twelve composite fluted columns, which rising from the floor, form a circular walk, in the centre of the ambulatory; the entablature over the columns, is enriched in the most splendid manner, and above that, are twelve elegant circular windows. The ceiling of the dome is decorated with stucco ornaments, in the Mosaic taste, divided into small hexagonal compartments, and in the centre is a large window that illuminates most of the building.—On each side of the fluted columns that support the dome, are semi-pilasters of the Ionic order, that extend to upwards of half the height of the columns; over the pilasters is an entablature, and above that, in the space between the columns, are elegant festoons of drapery, and other ornamental decorations; with a clock over the statue of his Majesty, and directly opposite the entrance at the north front.—At each extremity of the north side of the Exchange, are oval geometrical stair-cases, which lead to the Coffee-room, and other apartments on the same floor: the stair-cases are enlightened by flat oval lanterns in the ceiling, which is embellished by handsome

stucco ornaments: in some of the compartments are represented figures found in the ruins of Herculaneum, with the grounds coloured.—The Coffee-room extends from one stair-case to the other, almost the whole length of the north front, and its breadth is from the front to the dome: in point of magnificence, it is perhaps equal to any coffee-room in Great-Britain.—Upon the whole, whether we look upon this building with respect to magnificence or convenience, it is equally deserving of our admiration and applause.

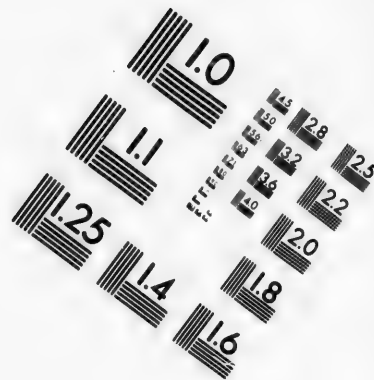
The Lying-in-Hospital is esteemed by the best judges to be an excellent piece of architecture, and is admired for the beauty of its proportions: the colonnade at each side, and the steeple, are in a good stile. The interior parts are extremely well disposed. The chapel is particularly admired for the elegance of the stucco ornaments with which it is enriched. The wards for the women are very convenient. Adjoining to the east colonnade is the Rotunda, one of the noblest and most magnificent circular rooms in the British dominions: the wall inside is decorated by a number of fluted Corinthian pilasters; between them are windows ornamented in a fine stile, and beneath are recesses between the pedestals of the pilasters; at one side a grand orchestra.—On the east side of the Rotunda and communicating with it, has lately been erected, a very elegant building, ornamented with rustic work; four columns in the Doric order, and a pediment. Here are several noble apartments, intended for card and supper rooms, &c. &c. The profits arising from the accommodation of company therein, as well as the Rotunda, are applied in aid of this valuable institution.—The gardens behind the hospital have lately been surrounded with an iron balustrading, set upon a low mountain-stone wall and coping, which has produced an effect uncommonly novel and beautiful, and the pavillions at the north-east, and north-west angles, with columns of the Doric order, are in a stile of such simple elegance and taste, as greatly contribute to the beauty of the whole; and render it one of the most pleasing ornaments to be met with in Europe.

The Blue-coat Hospital. The first stone of this building was laid by his Excellency the Earl of Harcourt, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, on the 16th of June 1773; the centre contains apartments for the principal officers, and their servants, a committee-room, record-room, and a handsome board-room for the governors to meet in. The front is enriched in the centre, by four Ionic columns, supporting a pediment; over this the steeple is intended to rise one hundred and thirty feet from the ground, enriched by Corinthian and Composite pilasters, in the most elegant stile. On one side of this building stands the chapel, and on the other the school, forming two beautifully proportioned wings. The chapel, which forms the north wing, is sixty-five feet long, thirty-two feet six inches broad, and thirty-two feet high. The school (forming the south wing) is of the same length and breadth as the chapel, and twenty feet high.—This whole front extends three hundred and sixty feet. Both the wings are united to the centre building, by handsome circular walls, ornamented with a balustrade and niches. The principal steeple in the centre, when completed, must add much to the beautiful appearance of this building as a public work, and reflects a great deal of honour on the abilities of the architect, the late Mr. Thomas Ivory.

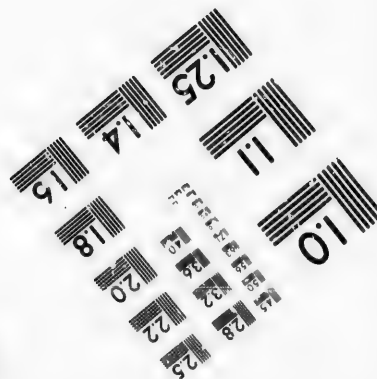
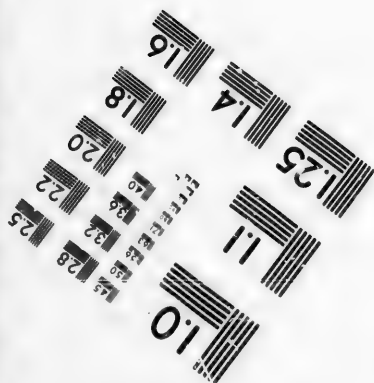
The Linen and Yarn Halls form a building of considerable extent, composed of various squares, built at different periods, some of rough masonry and others of white mountain stone, in a plain substantial stile of architecture. The rapid increase of the linen manufacture and the sales at this hall, have demanded the late considerable additions, which are with the other parts, admirably constructed to the purposes of their application.

West of the town, in a fine situation, stands the Hospital of Kilmainham, or Royal-Hospital, a large commodious building, founded in 1695, for the reception



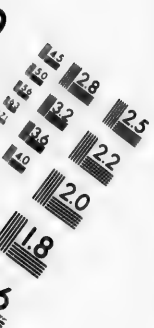


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of superannuated veterans, and those who have been by sickness, or the chance of war, rendered incapable of serving their country in a military capacity.—On the opposite side of the river, are the Barracks, the largest building of the kind, not only in the British dominions, but in Europe. They are capable of containing 3000 foot, and 500 horse: the old, or principal part is of rough stone, ornamented with cornices, and window sashes of cut stone.—Within these few years has been added, to the east of the old buildings, a new square of considerable extent, of white mountain stone; its character is that of extreme plainness, but yet is allowed to communicate much effect from the capacity and boldness of its parts.

The Military Hospital in the Phoenix Park is justly admired for the merit of its design; the south or principal front is built of white mountain stone, consisting of a center, and two wings with pediments, finished with a neat cornice and a cupola, and ornamented with great neatness and modesty. In compartments in this front are represented, in basso-relievo, a figure of Esculapius, emblematic of the application of the building, with other ornaments of a military design, &c. The situation is uncommonly judicious, in a dry healthy soil, and being a commanding eminence, shews the building to much advantage.

The other public buildings, are the Hibernian and Marine Schools, the Foundling, Stephens's, Swift's, Simpson's, and the Meath Hospitals, but as these do not possess any remarkable architectural beauties, we shall not enter into a particular description of them.

The most distinguished private houses are those of the Duke of Leinster, and the Lords Charlemont, Tyrone, and Powerscourt, which have each their peculiar beauties; besides these there are several others, whose claims to taste and elegance are very striking; and indeed within these few years, the nobility and gentry seem to vie with each other in the splendor and convenience of their residences, so that Dublin is not perhaps inferior to any city on the continent in this respect.

But a superior boast have the citizens in the number of charitable institutions which prevail in every part of the town. Each parish has its charity-school, as have also the different religious bodies, liberally supported by sermons or annual subscriptions.—The Foundling-Hospital is upon a scale of unbounded humanity, as it always affords an asylum to deserted children, who are taken in at the tenderest age, and are reared in early habits of industry, in a due knowledge of morality, and educated for the rank they are intended to fill in society.—The Blue-coat-Hospital was principally intended for the sons of deceased or reduced freemen of the city, and is under the government of its magistrates. It possesses a private estate, which enables it to educate and maintain above one hundred boys, the care and attention to whom may be estimated by the circumstance of its having always produced some of the most wealthy and respectable citizens.—The Hibernian and Marine Schools are two establishments of the utmost utility: The former is for the sons and daughters of soldiers, who, having bled or grown old in the service of their country, have a just claim on its generosity for the adoption of their children.—The Marine School is intended for the sons of decayed or deceased seamen, and is conducted with great judgment and attention to their morals and necessary education; it is however to be regretted, that an institution, intended as a nursery for seamen in a rising commercial country, is not upon a scale of much greater magnitude. It is from such seminaries that we should expect to draw the sinews of our future navies, the protectors of their country, the extenders of science, the Rodney's and the Cooks of Ireland.—The benevolent idea of the Lying-in-Hospital originated with the late Doctor Mosse, whose humanity being wounded at the sufferings of poor women in the city, he opened a house for their reception in George's-Lane, in the year 1745; but finding

this too confined for the extended goodness of his heart, he took a piece of ground in Great-Britain-street in 1750, where he embarked the whole of his private fortune in the commencement of a new hospital; here, after struggling unsuccessfully with a variety of schemes for raising a fund for completing it, he at length petitioned parliament, whose liberality for different sessions enabled him to effect this valuable object in 1756, and granted him 2000*l.* as a reward for his services. Since its opening in December, 1757, to the present time, there have been above 25,000 women delivered therein; and its benefits would be still more valuable, if the women were permitted to remain longer in the Hospital; and would be much more extensive, but that the funds are unfortunately small and precarious, arising from casual benefactions, and the profits of entertainments in the public rooms and gardens adjoining.

Simpson's Hospital for poor decayed blind and gouty men, was founded on a noble bequest of the late George Simpson, Esq. in 1780. For the better effecting which several respectable citizens were appointed trustees by his will, and incorporated by act of parliament, who have built an excellent house and offices on a plain modest plan in Great-Britain-street, for the reception of proper objects. There are sixty blind or gouty men of different religious persuasions, comfortably clad, liberally maintained and lodged, enjoying even some of the rational gratifications of life, and ministered to in sickness; and this number is expected to be enlarged as the estate which maintains it shall improve. We cannot sufficiently admire the principle on which this hospital was founded, as it affords an asylum whose comforts at least alleviate two of the greatest corporeal infirmities with which mankind can be afflicted; and this often at that period of life, when the unhappy sufferer may have survived even the wreck of fortune and of friends. The manner too in which it is conducted by the trustees, reflects the highest honour on them; it softens calamity, heals the wounded mind, and renders the boon of charity doubly grateful to those who enjoy it. No overgrown servants here divert the sacred current of its revenue into their own pockets, nor occupy the house to the exclusion of its objects.

The House of Industry was placed under the corporation for the relief of the poor, and punishing of vagabonds, &c. in the year 1773. It is intended for the accommodation of poor, aged, or infirm objects, and for the employment and correction of sturdy beggars. It contains an hospital for the sick, and cells for the lunatic, and has in some measure removed from the streets and avenues of the city, the numerous objects of poverty, disease, or imposture, which formerly infested them. This charity is supported by parliamentary aids, annual charity sermons, and private benefactions.

There are also Stephens's, Mercer's, the Charitable, the Meath, and St. Nicholas's Hospitals, and that for Incurables, beside several Dispensaries. These are under different species of government, and on different foundations; the object of all, however is, to administer medical, or afford surgical, assistance, to the poor of the city gratis, and are, without exception, conducted with infinite zeal and humanity by the different attendants.

St. Patrick's Hospital for lunatics and idiots, was founded by the celebrated Dean Swift in 1745, on a bequest of 11,000*l.* and is inspected with great attention.

The Charitable Loan Society was incorporated by parliament in 1778, for lending out money, interest free, to indigent tradesmen. This institution has produced important effects in the promotion of industry, and communicates essential benefits to that valuable part of the community.

Having given an abstract of the history of this city, and described the principal external objects worthy attention therein, we proceed to give a short account of its government and police.

The municipal government of the city of Dublin is vested in a lord mayor, 24 aldermen, 2 sheriffs, and 97 common council who are elected by the several corporations. The various departments of its police are partly in the hands of this corporation, and partly in several boards instituted for the purpose within these few years. In the former is the care of the water, which they are to see carefully and constantly distributed to every part of the metropolis, from two principal sources, one from a basin at the west end of the city, on the south side of James's-street, which affords a noble head of water, being chiefly supplied by the grand canal; and the other from the Liffey at Island-bridge, where a forcing engine is employed to raise the water to a proper level for the better supply of the north side of the city: from these sources it is supplied, in a degree, perhaps, superior to any other in Europe.

The magistrates of this corporation are also intrusted with the power of inspecting public markets, regulating the assize of bread, administering justice in the court of conscience, &c.—But its powers and consequence have been considerably abridged, within a few years, by the creation of new boards to whom have been transferred a variety of those prerogatives which have for ages been exercised by the citizens, and in whom they were thought to be inherent.

The police or nightly guardianship of the city is vested in a corporation possessing very extensive powers.—It is composed of three commissioners, and four divisional magistrates, appointed by government from the board of aldermen. The commissioners have a supreme superintending authority over the subordinate officers acting in various capacities in the city; and the divisional magistrates hear complaints and are directed to administer justice, in certain cases, within their respective districts. The nightly guard consist of about 500 men, of which 20 are horsemen, under the discipline of a chief constable and sundry other officers.—A certain number of these men are employed to attend the magistrates in the day, for the preservation of peace, for conducting offenders to prison, for attending the execution of justice, for guarding the house of commons, and other purposes.—The commissioners have also the administration of the carriage duty, the regulation of carriages, and the hearing complaints against the drivers, and they have a power of granting licences for the carrying on of various trades and professions in the city; in short these commissioners are invested with a regulating controul, which pervades a very numerous description of the citizens, and possess powers under the law of claiming and levying money to a wide extent and to a considerable amount.

The citizens have never been cordial to the institution of this board, since its erection; and it has certainly created more private and public murmurings than any act or establishment of parliament for many years.—Every citizen who loves order, and regards the preservation of his personal safety, his peace, and his property, must desire and support a constitutional protection which will effect these purposes; and none being more interested in these than the citizens of Dublin themselves, they thought the power and the means should therefore be vested in them. They considered this establishment as intended for other objects than their benefit: as planting a standard of corruption amongst their magistrates: as breaking that bond of union which should subsist between them and the people, of whom they were hereby rendered independent, and to whose interests and freedom they would become aliens; and finally, they considered this plan as irreconcilable to the popular genius of the constitution, and to the prejudices of those it was intended to govern. Reformation, however justifiable and necessary, is not the work of a season; and he who attempts to control suddenly, fixed opinions, and overturn old establishments, by law or by arms, is not acquainted with human nature, or the history of civil society, and will endanger the peace or existence of the government.—The discontent of the people rose so

high in the winter of 1787, that meetings were held in all the parishes of the city, where resolutions conceived in the strongest language were entered into, declaratory of their abhorrence of the institution, of its mal-administration, of the enormity of the tax, of its misapplication, and that it was erected more for corruption than protection.—A petition was presented to parliament signed by more than 7000 of the citizens, stating in respectful and firm terms these grievances; counsel were heard, and evidence examined; from which it appeared, that very great enormities had been committed, and the “persons and properties of the citizens rendered more insecure than heretofore.”—These proceedings impelled the legislature to a revision and alteration of the law, but these do not appear to have produced much effect, or to have lessened the evils complained of, or silenced the complaints of the citizens.

The Paving, Lighting and Cleansing of the city are vested in a corporation specially incorporated for these purposes.—Until the year 1774 (when it was originally created) this city in all these respects was eminently defective.—The first object of the corporation was the removal of signs, jet-out-windows, &c. which obstructed the passages and were distressing nuisances.—The city soon assumed a new and more agreeable appearance; and as the flagging of the foot-ways extended, the reform was the more sensibly felt.—But the funds being inadequate to perfect these various purposes, parliament increased the tax, and gave 5000*l.* annually of the coach-tax as a further aid, so that their revenue now amounts to near 24,000*l.* per annum.—This was vested in a new board composed of seven directors, and five commissioners, the latter of whom being paid for their attention, and being in some degree under the controul of the directors, execute their trust with distinguished vigilance and effect, insomuch, that it is expected the metropolis of Ireland will be eminently conspicuous in a few years for the valuable accommodations of well-paved, well-cleansed, and well-lighted streets.—Another object of their attention merits particular notice: until the year 1783 the poor of the city were greatly distressed, from the want of water; and various extortions were practised on them for procuring it; till the humanity of Sir John Blaquiere interfering, solicited and obtained from parliament, an appropriation of part of the funds of this corporation for the erection of conduits and fountains in various parts of the city, which now abundantly afford to a numerous part of the community one of the greatest elemental blessings without expense; and many of these fountains deriving great beauty from the aids of sculpture and architecture, are distinguished as elegant and conspicuous ornaments; uniting the *Utile dulci*; and are monuments of the taste and benevolence of the promoter.

Having described the metropolis, and every interesting establishment therein, as fully as the nature of our work will admit, we proceed to a sketch of some of the principal towns in the kingdom.

Cork is the second city in the kingdom, and capital of the province of Munster, governed by a mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament. It is seated on an island in the river Lea, which branching into two arms about a mile above the site of the city, one runs on its north and the other on its south side, over which are placed neat bridges, by which the communication with the opposite continents is preserved. The island is intersected by several canals, either natural or artificial, which being banked in, bring up ships almost to every street, and greatly facilitate their trade. The situation of the city is partly on a rising ground on the north and south, and the middle on a level; it is three miles long and near two broad, and is uncommonly populous for its extent, containing above 80,000 inhabitants. Formerly the streets and houses were as narrow and inelegant as those of equal antiquity in Ireland, but the public and private buildings of late years are in the style of modern elegance, and alike declare the improved taste, spirit, and riches of the inhabi-

tants, who have been at all times distinguished for their liberal hospitality and agreeable suavity of manners. Here are seven Protestant churches, eleven Catholic chapels, and four dissenting meeting-houses, belonging to Presbyterians, Anabaptists, Quakers and French Protestants. The Custom-house, Exchange, Market-house, County-Court-house and the Theatre, are handsome buildings; and the charity schools and similar foundations are numerous and well supported;—upon the whole, this city very justly ranks as the second in the kingdom, and is 124 miles S. W. of Dublin.—The trade of Cork is very considerable, and its exports are in some articles much superior to those of the metropolis. In time of war it is the great market for provisions, from whence the British navy draw an inexhaustible supply. The other articles of export consist of corn, wool, bay and woollen yarn, camblets, ferges, hides, butter, candles, soap, tallow, herrings, &c.—Wool-combing is carried on to such extent in this county, that half the wool of Ireland is said to be combed here; the manufactures consist of camblets, ferges, ratteens, frizes, druggets, narrow cloaths, coarse linen, stockings, &c. but when agriculture and manufactures are more widely diffused through this fruitful province, their trade will be more valuable, as being derived from the enlarged industry and ingenuity of the people.

LIMERICK must ever be distinguished in a history or description of Ireland. Its situation on the noblest river which any European island can boast, and placed in one of the most fertile counties of the kingdom:—the celebrity which it has derived from its memorable and eventful siege; and still more from its articles of surrender; with the many momentous circumstances which proceeded therefrom;—all these, render this city one of the most interesting features in this country. Limerick is a cheerful and a flourishing city, and is composed of what is called the Irish and the English town. The latter stands upon the south part of a piece of ground three miles in circumference, called the King's Island, formed by the Shannon, which divides itself about half a mile above the city. The Irish town is on the south or opposite side of the river, and both are united by an old bridge, called Baal's. These towns in their ancient state consisted but of one wide well built street, cut at right angles by many narrow lanes; at present the city is large, populous and regular; three miles in circumference; is supposed to contain above 40,000 inhabitants, and is 92 miles S. W. by W. from Dublin, and about 60 miles from the sea. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs and other magistrates; is a city and county in itself, and sends two members to parliament. Its trade is considerable, particularly in the export of beef, pork, butter, hides, rape-seed, &c. &c. and the manufactures of linen, woollen and paper are carried on to some extent; that of gloves is no less celebrated abroad than at home, for their uncommon delicacy and beauty*.

BELFAST, though a few years since of inferior or second rate consequence, now ranks amongst the first towns in Ireland; to which importance it has arrived by the most rapid extension, and for which it is indebted to the enterprizing activity of its merchants, the uncommon industry of its people, and from its situation, being the medium through which are conveyed the imports and exports of a populous and great manufacturing country. Belfast is in the county of Antrim, on the river Lagan, at its junction with the Lough of Belfast, is supposed to contain at least 30,000 inhabitants, governed by a Sovereign and 12 Burgesses, sends two members to parliament, and is 80 miles north from Dublin. The streets are broad, the houses generally modern and well built. The Exchange, Hall, and other public buildings

* Those who may choose to be more fully acquainted with this city, will be much gratified by consulting its ancient and modern history, written with great pains and fidelity by one of its citizens, Mr. Ferrar.

are suited to the purposes of their erection, and worthy the consequence of the town; the places of entertainment are conducted with taste and politeness, and the general manners of the people upright, independent, frank and amiable. Their trade has risen, and is daily rising, into considerable value; the exports of linen, manufactured cotton, glass, corn, beef, pork, and sundry other articles, are great; and their various manufactures form some of the most important in the kingdom.

WATERFORD stands on the south side of the Suire, a broad and rapid river without any bridge, and about four miles and a half from its junction with the Nore and Barrow, all which united form the harbour. This city is about eight miles from the sea, and 74 miles south-west from Dublin; it is a most convenient port for foreign traffic, and its harbour runs almost 12 miles up the country, nearly in a strait line, all the way deep and clear. Waterford was originally built in 879, but destroyed in 981; it was considerably enlarged by Strongbow in 1171, and still further in the reign of Henry VII. who granted considerable privileges to the citizens; and Richard II. landed and was crowned here in 1399. In 1690, James II. embarked from hence for France, after the battle of the Boyne, and King William resided here twice, and confirmed its privileges. This city is capital of the county of the same name, governed by a Mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; there are a cathedral of great extent and elegance, three churches, (one of which is extremely beautiful and spacious, and rivals any which even the capital can boast) four Catholic Chapels, and places of worship for French Protestants, Presbyterians, Quakers, and Anabaptists. The Bishop's palace is a fine building of hewn stone, with two fronts. The Court-house, Exchange, Custom-house, and Barracks, are neat handsome buildings, and the new Theatre and Assembly Rooms are fitted up in a very fine taste. There are several charity schools and humane foundations, well supported; the private dwellings are generally modern, and with the other improvements of the city, keep pace with the increase of its trade. The white glass and other manufactures of Waterford are in a flourishing state; and its export of beef, pork, butter, hides, tallow, corn, &c. is considerable; to which the extensive inland navigation it has by means of the Nore, Suire, and Barrow greatly contributes; as they also do to the import trade, from the demand for foreign commodities in the several rich counties and flourishing towns through which these rivers flow. The trade it carries on with Newfoundland, and of which it enjoys the principal share, is of the utmost importance, as upwards of seventy sail of shipping are employed in the supply of the banks with provisions, &c. and return from thence and the West-Indies with fish, rum, sugar, cotton, &c. Some idea of the provision trade here may be formed by the vast number of large hogs killed, which amount to upwards of 3000 per week, for many weeks together, and of butter there have been exported from hence from 60, to 80,000 casks a year.

KILKENNY is one of the best inland cities in this kingdom, pleasantly situated on the river Nore, distant 57 miles south-west from Dublin. It is governed by a Mayor, Recorder, and Aldermen.—It comprizes two towns, Kilkenny, so called, and Irish-Town, each of which sends two members to parliament; and, together, are computed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants: This city was once of great consequence as may be seen by the number of venerable ruins yet remaining of magnificent churches, monasteries, and abbeys, which even now, in their delapidated state, exhibit such specimens of exquisite taste in architecture, as may vie with any modern improvements: The remains of its gates, towers, and walls, shew that it was formerly a place of great strength; here too at different times parliaments were held, in which some remarkable statutes were passed. It has two churches, and several Catholic chapels—the cathedral stands in a sequestered situation, is a venerable Gothic pile.

and built above five hundred years; close to it is one of those remarkable round towers, which have so much engaged the attention of travellers: The Bishop's palace is a handsome building, and communicates by a covered passage with the church: The castle was first built in the 12th century—but as it now stands by the ancestors of the Dukes of Ormond; the situation is at once bold and beautiful, on a very steep hill overhanging a reach of the Nore, with every advantage that an extensive prospect of woods, mountains and plains can give. Here the Ormond family resided, and it is now in the possession of Mr. Butler a descendant of that illustrious race. The present possessor has considerably improved it by building a noble range of offices: The college originally founded by the Ormond family, is just rebuilt in a style of elegance and convenience.—The Tholsel and Market-house are both good buildings; over the latter are a suite of rooms, in which, during the winter, and at races and assizes times, assemblies are held, where may be seen as much urbanity and beauty as any place of its size can boast. There are two very fine bridges of cut marble over the Nore, John's particularly, which consists of three elliptic arches, is beautifully proportioned, and might serve as a model of lightness and elegance. The only manufactures of consequence in this city are coarse woollen cloaths, blankets of extraordinary fine quality, and considerable quantities of starch; in the neighbourhood also are manufactured those beautiful chimney-pieces, which are known all over the kingdom by the name of Kilkenny marble; nor must it be omitted, that these are cut and polished by water, a mill (the only one of its kind in these kingdoms, or probably in Europe) having been invented by the late ingenious Mr Colles for this purpose. On the whole, if we consider the purity of air and water, the number of mill sites, the convenience of firing (the coal-pits being within nine miles), the plenty of its markets, and cheapness of labour, Kilkenny would prove an excellent situation for the establishment of considerable manufactories.

GALWAY is the most considerable town in Connaught, and the capital of the county of the same name. It is seated on the noble bay of Galway, on the Western Ocean, and is 120 miles west from Dublin. It has but one parish church, which is a large and beautiful Gothic structure; an Exchange, three nunneries, three monasteries, three barracks, a charter-school, and an hospital. It is a county in itself, governed by a Mayor, or his Deputy, two Sheriffs and a Recorder, and sends two members to parliament. The town is surrounded with walls, and including its suburbs, contains about 15,000 inhabitants; the houses are principally built of stone in the Gothic order, few being in the modern style. The salmon and herring fisheries are carried on here with great spirit, and employ several hundred boats; the quantity of kelp manufactured and exported is considerable, and the growth of the linen manufacture, though of late introduction, is become very important.

LONDONDERRY is one of the most conspicuous cities in Ireland, as well for its extent and trade, as for its ever-memorable siege; a siege, distinguished as much for the principles, fortitude, and courage of the defenders, as the ultimate consequence which arose from the steady and successful exercise of those virtues. Londonderry is 115 miles north-north-west from Dublin, in the province of Ulster, and capital of the county of the same name; sends two members to parliament, and is governed by a Mayor and other Magistrates. It is seated on an eminence or declivity of an oval form, being almost a peninsula at the bottom, and on a narrow part of Lough Foyle, which surrounds, for a quarter of a mile broad, two thirds or more of the eminence, and by which they have an open navigation to the sea on the very north of the kingdom. This situation is not more advantageous than beautiful; the city is extremely well built and neat, and a general appearance of order, industry and sobriety prevails throughout. Its trade is considerable; the exports consist of linen, linen-yarn,

grain, &c. and their exertions in the Greenland and other fisheries, have been successful, declare their enterprising spirit, and merit every encouragement. The ground plot of this city is the property of the corporations of London, from which it has compounded its former name, which was Derry.

NEWRY is in the county Down, 50 miles N. from Dublin, and seated on the Newry Water, which is rendered navigable for large vessels into the bay of Carlingford; and by a noble canal which joins the Bann river, this town has a communication with Lough Neagh and all the circumjacent neighbourhood. It is not many years since Newry was but of inferior consideration either in trade or extent, but the active industry of its inhabitants, the advantages of its situation, and other local circumstances, have impelled its growth and respectability with unprecedented celerity. Newry is a neat, well built and busy town, and its export and import trade considerable and increasing.

DROGHEDA is seated on the river Boyne, which is navigable for ships of burden to the Quay; it is 23 miles N. from Dublin, principally in the county Louth, and is one of the most distinguished towns in the kingdom; being large and the streets generally spacious, neat, modern and well-built; it is governed by a Mayor, Sheriffs, Recorder, and Aldermen; is a county in itself, and sends two members to parliament. Here is an active scene of business, excited by the wealth, enterprize, and industry of its inhabitants, whose social and polite manners, render a residence here equally agreeable to the trader or gentleman. The trade of Drogheda is considerable; and would be still greater, if the Boyne was navigable to the inland towns, through the adjoining counties; the neglect of which is equally mysterious and unpardonable; their exports consist of linen, linen-yarn, cotton, &c. and that of corn is probably greater than from any other port in the kingdom: their manufactures are equally flourishing.

WEXFORD is capital of the county of the same name, 67 miles S. from Dublin; governed by a Mayor and other magistrates, and sends two members to parliament; it is built near the sea, upon the river Slaney, that empties itself into the ocean here; the haven is very large, and the entrance is defended by two narrow necks of land, each forming an isthmus that stretch forward to meet each other, leaving an opening of about half a mile. The first English forces that arrived in this kingdom were landed here; encouraged by king Dermot, and led by Robert Fitzstephens, and Maurice Fitzgerald. The town is in general well built, and the Church, Market-house, and Custom-house are handsome modern structures; it is seated in a country peculiarly plentiful, by which their markets are uncommonly cheap and well supplied; and their trade consists chiefly in corn, particularly barley and malt, of which they export considerable quantities.

SLIGO is a sea-port town, capital of the county of the same name, and is 103 miles N. W. from Dublin. Its situation on a great bay opening to the Atlantic Ocean, and which abounds with innumerable shoals of fish, gives it many advantages, and renders it a fishing station of the first importance, as it is no less eligible for the trade of the western world. The quantity of linen and linen-yarn exported from Sligo is very considerable, those manufactures having spread themselves through this part of the kingdom with great rapidity.

ARMAGH, HILLSBOROUGH, LISBURN, COLERAIN, and several other towns in different parts of the kingdom, claim more attention than the limits of our work can indulge. Armagh is not only one of the greatest markets for licens, but is perhaps unrivalled by any other of equal extent, for the beauty of its public buildings, for which it is indebted to the unexampled munificence of its primate. Hillsborough claims its share of praise on the same account; and Lisburn and Colerain, beside possessing a large portion of the linen business, merit equal notice for their extreme neatness, and the spirit and industry of their inhabitants.

PARTICULARS OF THE REVENUE AND EXPENCES OF

R E V E N U E.						
				£.	s.	d.
Hereditary Revenue	-	-	-	262249	9	6½
Additional duties on Customs and Excise inwards and outwards	-	-	-	516695	4	6½
Duties on stamped paper and parchment	-	-	-	39893	3	4
Revenue arising from the Post Office	-	-	-	14171	9	4
Pells and Poundage received at the Treasury	-	-	-	25301	8	1
Surplus from the public coal yards	-	-	-	864	16	5
Lottery office licences	-	-	-	233	18	8
Rent of new Geneva County Waterford	-	-	-	738	14	2½
Regimental Balance	-	-	-	1500	0	0
Absentee Tax	-	-	-	6308	9	4½
				867956	13	6½

The ancient revenue of the crown, payable by prescription, or by *common law*, and without any express grant by act of parliament, is composed of crown rents, composition rents, prizage, light-house duties, and casual revenue, consisting of fines, seizures, and forfeitures. The revenues from customs inwards and outwards, inland and import excise, hearth-money, quit-rents, and licences for selling ale, beer, wine and strong waters, *arise from express statutes*; the produce of all these branches of the revenue is vested in the king, his heirs and successors for ever, from whence it is called the king's hereditary revenue, and all such parts thereof as do not arise from common law or the statute of Henry VII. were granted for ever in the reign of Charles II.

Soon after the last of these perpetual grants were made, the parliament was dissolved, and during the space of twenty-six years no parliament sat in Ireland until the year 1692, when the increase of the civil and military establishments, and other charges of government, having considerably exceeded the produce of the hereditary revenue, the crown found it necessary to call upon parliament for further supplies, which being granted on articles subject at the time to hereditary duties, were called **ADDITIONAL DUTIES**, and their produce was given for one, two, or three years only, and renewed every session, without further extension until after the rebellion in 1715, when the commons of Ireland passed a vote of credit for the sum of 50,000*l.* to enable his majesty to put the kingdom in a posture of defence against the invasion with which it was then threatened. This vote of credit is considered as the origin of a national debt in this kingdom, and as it was to be raised by loan, bearing an annual interest, certain duties were afterwards granted to defray that interest and sink the principal; these duties have increased or decreased from time to time as the debt has risen or fallen, and are distinguished in the public accounts under the title of **LOAN DUTIES**.

Exclusive of these funds, there are other additional duties granted and appropriated for the encouragement of arts and sciences, for the promoting and extending trade and industry, and for the general improvement of the country. The produce of these **APPROPRIATED DUTIES** is not applicable to any services of government, but must be applied to the particular uses to which they are directed by parliament.

These several branches of revenue are collected by the commissioners of customs and excise, under the powers and authorities described in acts passed in the reign of Charles II. and several subsequent acts; except some very small part of the quit-rents and casual revenue, paid by the subject directly into the treasury, and except the duties on home-made wrought plate appropriated to inland navigation.

IRELAND FOR ONE YEAR ENDING 25th MARCH, 1787.

E X P E N C E.					
	£.	s.	d.		
Exchequer	27091	5	2½		
King's Bench	5722	11	8½		
Chancery	6399	19	1		
Common Pleas	5246	2	2½		
State Officers	9705	12	6		
Incidents	21736	8	0½		
Custom Officers	4968	6	2½		
Perpetuities	1506	16	7		
Commissioners of Appeal	1500	0	0		
Non-conforming Ministers	2700	0	0		
Commissioners and overseers of Barracks	3150	0	0		
Court of admiralty	700	0	0		
Commissioners of Imprest Accounts	4400	0	0		
Pensions	97366	2	10½		
French Pensions	534	1	9½		
Concordatum	5000	0	0		
Total of the Civil List				197727	6 1½
General Officers	33044	13	4		
Horse, Dragoons, and Foot	362100	10	6		
Warrant Men	15958	8	0		
Additional pay in Dublin	4669	9	11		
Allowances in lieu of stoppages	9513	12	7½		
Battle-Axe Guards	1891	18	4		
Garrisons, with their incidents	3991	1	0		
Military Pensions	6233	13	4		
Half-pay Officers	20800	17	1½		
Widows of Officers	5569	4	0		
Ordnance	21179	10	5½		
Military contingencies	3000	0	0		
Barracks	13336	10	0		
Total of the Military Establishment				501289	8 7½
Charges and payments by virtue of King's Letters	133450	4	9		
Charges and payments pursuant to acts of parliament	273745	8	7½		
{ Old Bounty	4000	0	0		
Linen Manufacture	10000	0	0		
{ Further Bounty	7250	0	0		
{ Premiums on Flax-seed	63338	16	3½		
Exceedings on	16332	9	6½		
{ Concordatum	19700	7	8½		
{ Military Contingencies	4123	14	2		
Prizage and Fees	1280	0	0		
Commissioners of the public accounts				533221	1 0½
Total of the Extraordinary Charges				1232237	15 10
The Total Gross Expende					
From whence deducting Lottery payments	160000	0	0		
The militia expence of one year	20000	0	0		
And sums repaid out of the produce of the til- } lage duties	4228	17	11½		
The Actual Expende				184228	17 11½
				£.1048008	17 10½

The foregoing Tables will shew the Items which generally compose the Account of the Revenue and Expences of Ireland each year;—the following, shew the progress of both, from an early period to the present times.

THE REVENUE AND EXPENCES OF IRELAND.

ANNUAL INCOME.				ANNUAL EXPENCE.			
The Medium of 16 Years				The Medium of 16 Years			
ending 1725	-	-	£405,366	ending 1725	-	-	£422,727
Years 1730	-	-	432,344	Years 1730	-	-	499,368
1740	-	-	435,460	1740	-	-	464,928
1750	-	-	616,972	1750	-	-	519,286
1760	-	-	583,255	1760	-	-	740,506
1770	-	-	699,290	1770	-	-	811,249
1780	-	-	599,456	1780	-	-	841,581
1781	-	-	599,456	1781	-	-	841,581
1782	-	-	700,801	1782	-	-	946,283
1783	-	-	700,801	1783	-	-	946,283
1784	-	-	832,411	1784	-	-	934,703
1785	-	-	789,779	1785	-	-	913,091
1786	-	-	976,845	1786	-	-	1,082,994
1787	-	-	867,956	1787	-	-	1,048,008

NATIONAL DEBT*.] The debt of Ireland is considered as having originated in 1715, when a vote of credit for 50,000*l.* was passed, on a threatened invasion of the kingdom.—From that period its progress though irregular and fluctuating was considerable; and in the year 1749, it amounted to 205,117*l.*—However, through the exercise of unusual oeconomy, or an increase of revenue, this debt was extinguished, and the nation was in credit the following years:

C R E D I T.

In 1751	—	£22,370
1753	—	205,173
1755	—	471,404
1757	—	249,422
1759	—	84,396

Again the nation engaged in debt, the rapid accumulation of which will appear from the annexed table.

D E B T.

Years 1761	—	£223,438
1763	—	521,161
1765	—	508,874
1767	—	581,964
1769	—	628,883
1771	—	789,569
1773	—	994,890
1775	—	931,690

D E B T.

Years 1777	—	£834,086
1779	—	1067,565
1781	—	1551,704
1783	—	1919,386
1784	—	2,123,343
1785	—	2,181,501
1786	—	2,052,766
1787	—	2,302,146

Although it appears that this debt has increased ten-fold in twenty seven years, yet it is an opinion with some, that it is no more than sufficient, for vesting in its funds,

* Extracted from the Journals of the House of Commons.

the superfluity of cash not engaged in trade or manufactures, and which otherwise would be sent out of the kingdom, and vested in foreign stocks.

If, however, the national manufactures were more fully protected, the capital of the country (instead of being turned into that unprofitable channel) would be more generally embarked in them, and industry more actively employed; but this seems to be a hopeless expectation, whilst the jealousy of a sister kingdom has sufficient influence in the national councils to prevent the attainment of so important an object. Added to this, another cause contributes to support the value of the funds, which is the prevailing reluctance to lend money on landed security, from the difficulties too often experienced in recovering the principal or the interest. In a country thus circumstanced, it should cease then to excite wonder, if the holder of money will not embark his property in manufactures always exposed to the crush of rivalry: nor will he lend it on landed security while the impediments to recovery are so numerous; he is therefore driven to the funds, where the demand being thus consequently great, the price is proportionably high. Whilst these grievances remain unredressed by the legislature, the national debt is by some esteemed rather an advantage than an evil; or perhaps as *the choice of evils*; for the example of England should ever be a beacon to guard us early from such a Charybdis, which promises in time to swallow up her manufactures, her commerce and her liberties.

HISTORY.] I. After the universal deluge, this island continued long in a desert state, destitute of inhabitants, situated in the extremity of the west, and remote from the continent; no durable settlement could be made in it, without a previous knowledge of the art of sailing on a turbulent ocean, and a skill in constructing vessels of burthen, sufficient for the importation of the animals necessary for subsistence in a northern country.—In consequence, it was after Spain, Gaul, and Britain had emerged from the savage state, that Ireland had received its first inhabitants.

Of the earliest settlers we have little information, but what we derive from the native bards, our first historians; informers who, with the licence of poetry, and the captivating impositions of verse and song, flattered the public vanity, and increased the public credulity, by dressing some important truths in a garb of fables. But this garb can be stripped off with little difficulty; a part of it, however, is not to be rejected, from the connection it has with Asiatic theology; a connection which took place antecedent to the expeditions of the Asiatic Scythians into Europe.

According to our native bards, the first settlers in Ireland were denominated Partholonians, Nemedes, Belgians, Damnonians, Galenians, and Danans, all tribes of Asiatic Scythians, who arrived at different periods of time; their chronology, like that of the Continent, in early times, cannot be ascertained.

It is of more importance to mention a new revolution in this isle, through an invasion of it from Galicia in Spain, conducted by the sons of Golam Echtoir, more commonly known by the name of Golam Milea Easpaine, i. e. Golam the Hero of Spain.—After some losses on the western shores of Munster, the Princes his sons had great success on their landing. In a decisive battle at Tailtion in Meath, the three reigning Princes of the Danans, with their three Queens, were killed at the head of their troops, and so completely vanquished, that we hear no more of the Danan people as making any effort for a re-establishment of their power.—To the Belgians (unconcerned in the contest between the invaders and the ruling powers) good terms were prudently offered, and accepted: a happy event, which, from correspondent circumstances, associated natives with strangers, luckily favoured by a community of origin and language.

This revolution, which took place several ages antecedent to the Christian Era, opened an immediate communication between Spain and Ireland. It secured a safe

retreat for such Gallician brethren, as might be incommoded by redundant numbers at home, or otherwise distressed by hostile neighbours. Our old annals inform us, that these intercourses between both countries continued to the third century of Christianity.

This subjection of Ireland to a colony from Spain involved very singular consequences. It exposes to our view a Scythian people better skilled in the elements of arts and literature than the tribes of Scythians they found before them in the island: a fact not to be overlooked, as the Scythians established in Spain had frequent intercourses with the Phœnicians of that country; and from those instructors assumed the name of Phenii, as equally honourable with their own original name of Scuit, or Scythians.

This very brief mention of the first inhabitants of Ireland, and of the subjection of the country to a colony of Spaniards, bears the strongest marks of credibility. Perpetuity of tradition through the heathen and christian ages is not to be rejected:—All our native bards have been unanimous in originating those first inhabitants, from the great stock of Scythians primevally established on the environs of the Euxine sea; that a swarm of those Scythians took its flight into the more cultivated countries of the East, where, in various migrations, they obtained skill in oriental arts, when arts were yet in their infancy; that it was in the course of these migrations they learned the seventeen cyphers they used in writing; that, skilled in navigation, they touched on the coasts north and south of the Mediterranean sea, where they sojourned for some time; that, finally, they ventured into the ocean by passing the strait of Hercules, and arrived in different periods of time, and in different colonies here in Ireland.

These simple facts, stripped of their poetic garb, are partly supported, and supported conspicuously, by collateral testimonies from oriental history; and the whole is authenticated by evidences the most decisive; the number of oriental terms and Asiatic religious rites, discovered in the old language and writings, still preserved in this country*.

Of this people in their insular state, I shall subjoin the following lines on their civil government and manners.

The last heathen people who subjected Ireland established themselves under a form of government that may well be denominated a republican monarchy. Instead of continuing the right of succession in the line of Heremon, the first monarch of the Milesian or Spanish race, they extended it to two other powerful families of the same stock. In the very beginning of their civil œconomy, they partitioned the island into five provinces, appointing over each a Governor, with the title of a Provincial King; and over all a Governor in Chief, with the title of a Flaith, or Monarch.

To secure a rotation of authority among the qualified families, every magistratical office was to be obtained from popular election; monarchs to be chosen by the states

* For this discovery the public is indebted to Colonel Charles Vallancey, a learned Gentleman of English birth, who conquered the great labour of making himself master of the Gaelic tongue, from the study and perusal of it, in a number of Irish manuscripts collected in England by Sir John Seabright, and remitted to the Colonel by the Right Hon. Edmund Burke; by other assistance also, from the collections lately made in France by the Colonel himself.—It was by collating these MSS. with a number of oriental books, that this Gentleman made the discovery I mentioned, and he did so, indeed, ex abundantia, in his Vindication of our Irish history, relative to the origin and migrations of the continental progenitors of the first inhabitants of this island.

Continental memorials of this importance, preserved in Ireland, shew, that the first inhabitants, but particularly the last, who held frequent intercourses with the Phœnicians of Spain, arrived with means sufficient for improving themselves in intellectual researches; that they have not lost those means (as happened in other northern countries), but in favourable conjunctures had gradually struck out modes of cultivation for themselves.

(for deputies from the states) of the kingdom, and provincial governors by their subordinate chieftains, called Toisachs. Through the want of a positive law to regulate those elections, it is evident, that they must become the source of intestine disorders; and we find, from the fragments left of this earliest period of Milesian government, that the throne of Teamor, the uneasy but ambitious seat of Irish monarchs, was generally the gift of a violent faction, not of a national election. Some of these intruded usurpers (as we may call them) became good kings, but of the greater number we have a mention only of their names and deaths, each ending his reign and life with arms in his hands. *Jara*

A constitution thus sickly in the cradle, and frequently exposed to dreadful convulsions (under the twenty-one Princes who are said to reign before Ollamh-Fodhla), was on the verge of dissolution, when one able and powerful Prince, of the Ultonian line, preserved it from that fate, and established a reform.

That Prince's name, Achay, has been long absorbed in the more dignified title of Ollamh-Fodhla, i. e. the Instructor of Ireland. Genius, conducted by wisdom and address, gave him a superiority over the two other royal families of the Milesian blood, and with the majority of an aggrieved nation on his side, all opposition fell before him. Through intense study of the principles which should prevail in society, he made le ters subservient to his purposes. In Teamor he began, by erecting the Mur-Ollamhan, an habitation for the Ollamhs, or Fileas, an order of men employed for promoting intellectual knowledge, and for instructing the youth of the principal families of the kingdom. This admirable institution of the Mur-Ollamhan, became the parent of similar seminaries of knowledge in the provinces, and through this monarch's influence, each has been endowed with an appropriated district for its support. The extraordinary immunities with which these colleges were endowed appear unexampled in the history of any other nation. In the fiercest animosities of factions, the inhabitants of districts, or Termons (as they were called) were left free and unmolested from depredation, as no party in the aggregate would bear the infamy which (by a happy prejudice) was annexed to a violation of those asylums, till corruptions among the Fileas themselves, exposed their order to severe animadversion in different periods of time. These transient abuses, however, were done away by regulations conformable to the first institution. The order was never abolished.

The Druids had equal immunities in the long reign of superstition, and were succeeded by the Christian Clergy, whose monasteries became the seats of learning to Christendom till the ninth century, when invasions from abroad, and corruptions at home, bad gradually produced such fallings off in church and state; as ended in the extinction of the crazy monarchy of the twelfth century.

Ollamh-Fodhla laid the foundations of good legislation; he instituted the Fes of Teamor, or Convention of the States at that place, what we may well denominate the first parliament of the nation. It was to assemble every third year at the close of harvest, for establishing laws and ordinances; and in a session therein, the civil rights of the Toisachs, or Dynasts, subordinate to provincial governors, with the rights also of the inferior Brughaidhs, or Landed Gentry, to be accurately ascertained. A wise regulation, which preserved a share of democratical power to the constitution, and which became much improved in the reign of Cormac O'Cuinn.

Through the reign of Ollamh-Fodhla, and the administration of three sons, his successors, we have no complaint of bad government, or dangerous insurrections; that monarch, no doubt, conformed his regulations to what was practicable among a turbulent people; but at the same time a teachable people, crushed by misrule on the commencement of his reign. Of the details of his government we have few left, and we must be content with outlines.

47 100
In the very family of this Legislator, old disorders commenced, and the two royal families, who seemed excluded by prescription, reassumed the monarchical power of their grandfathers. A new reform took place on the accession of Hugony the Great to the throne, but did not hold long without violation. A third revolution restored the powers of the provincial kings under Achay Feiloch, in the first century of the Christian Æra. Another, and the last revolution, under the heathen æconomy, came about in the second century: It was the most important revolution in the whole Irish history, and the most productive of great events and great men.

II. The military operations of distant ages in Ireland, are not now interesting: Those which regard the human mind, are more worthy of attention. The Druids had gradually gained an almost unlimited authority: They were dogmatists, and interested in the dogmatism. Some enlightened men of the first rank, sought to reform their colleges: They were deemed useful, as ministers of the public worship; not as uncontrollable dictators. Conla, judge of Connaught, opposed their superstitions and encroachments. Cormac O'Cuinn carried on the controversy in favour of Theism; and several Fileas, emulating their reforming predecessors, proposed new schemes of truth. The Druids and their followers were bigots to superstition, and lost ground. The philosophers were bigots severally to some favourite hypothesis, and could not gain in proportion as the others lost. What is very remarkable; domestic warfare took little share in these contentions; because dogmatism was not the cause of faction; and because freedom of debate was the cause of all. Disputes, carried on for a good end, endless however in their nature, fatigued mankind: But the spirit of enquiry had a good effect, as it prepared for the reception of the gospel. It could find no lasting repose in any other scheme of truth.

Nothing could flatter the human mind more, than to receive a conviction that the author of all being, who partly revealed his will in the works of nature, partly in a covenant with the race of an eastern patriarch, condescended to come down on earth, to converse with man, and render this revelation complete. The wiser men of the nation, finding this world a scene of seeming inconsistencies and real mysteries, made no long opposition to the mysteries of Christianity. Those who believed the whole to be the work of ONE omnipotent being, were humbled by the idea, that man, who would grasp at more than is attainable, is graciously, as well as necessarily, retained to what is immediately useful in an intermediate state. That what is concealed is part of our happiness; and that faith in what is revealed, is not the less our duty, because a part of it is, at present, incomprehensible. Thus was the Theism of the Fileas put into the right track.

48 2
The fourth and fifth centuries were productive of great revolutions in Ireland. The race of Tuathal Teachtmair wrested the province of Connaught from the Dastionians, its old inhabitants. They wrested the greater part of Ulster from the Rudricians; settled the province of Munster, to their liking, in the posterity of Olioll Olum, and contracted alliances with the northern nations. Such revolutions were not common: Because the monarchs of Ireland were greatly limited in power, and because the crime of rebellion affected the heads of parties chiefly; but very seldom their offspring, or the body of the people, whose ancient possessions were deemed inalienable.—Power, in certain conjunctures, may overrule inveterate custom. It will recal the custom, when it finds no better means for its own prosperity.

From the time that Connaught, the largest province then in Ireland, was conquered by * Muryach Tireach, the national monarchs removed their court to Cruachain. They wanted to awe and to reconcile a brave, but fierce people, newly subdued;

* K. of Ireland, A. D. 334.

+ new system

by their residence among them. When that end was obtained, Laogary, the son of Niall the Great, transferred the seat of government back to Meath.

While these changes were making, and while each contributed to establish the regal succession in the Hy-Niall family alone; the Christian Religion was introduced by † Kiaran of Saigher and others; captives in a foreign land, but set free on their receiving baptism and holy orders. They converted numbers to the faith, and procured secure retreats for the foreign missionaries sent hither by pope Celestine the first, and his successors.

The chief planter of the gospel in Ireland was by birth a Briton, but a Roman by education; and he is known at present by his honorary Roman name, PATRICIUS. If we should judge by the writings ascribed to this missionary, he was vastly inferior to his contemporaries, Hieron the Monk, Ambrose of Milan, and Augustine of Hippo; but to judge of him by his success in preaching, he excelled the three, and appears to be as successful a Missionary as lived since the apostolic age. 6.333

Some conversions in the king's domains; and even about his person, gave great alarm; and human policy united, on this occasion, with a contemptible superstition, to oppose the progress of the gospel. Men in power knew that novelties, such as turn the minds of the lower sort from a reverence to established maxims, are generally attended with consequences dangerous to the public quiet, ruinous to personal interests, and shocking to local prejudices; which, however absurd, are often more dear to numbers than any real interest whatever. In process of time, Leogary himself yielded to the repeated solicitations of the queen, and others about him, to conform to the Christian Faith. It had a happy effect, in preventing any public persecution from the adherents to Druidism: And yet, if this monarch was ever sincere, it is certain that he apostatized.

The progress of Christianity was so considerable, that, so early as the fifth year of the general preaching, PATRIC was summoned to sit, and assist in the great senate of the nation, called the FES of TEAMOR. He was appointed one of the famous committee of nine, to whom was intrusted the reform of the ancient civil history of the nation; so as to render it instructive to posterity: It was intitled, THE GREAT ANTIQUITY, and was, no doubt, the most authentic body of history then extant. Few fragments of it are come down, through the ravages of the Norman war.

No missionary was ever invested with more ample ecclesiastical jurisdiction, than PATRIC, on his quitting Rome. It remained many ages with his successors in the see of Ardmacha; and was very seldom recalled, until a variety of liturgies, and a relaxation of discipline, rendered a reformation necessary, in the twelfth century. Nothing in ecclesiastical history is more remarkable, than the inflexible adherence of the nation to the doctrines by which it was originally converted; unless it be the unanimous resignation of their ancient ecclesiastical immunities to the Roman see, after an almost undisturbed enjoyment of seven hundred years.

After the conversion of the court, that of the nation was rapid: And, if it be true, as undoubtedly it is, that Christianity got the least opposition from the learned and civilized nations; its great progress in Ireland will, on that principle, be the less to be surprized at. The spirit of the religion, teaching men how to govern, and how to obey, from the conviction of eternal rewards in a better life, for uprightness of conduct in this, must have great influence on good government: Far from countenancing persecution or sedition, it is abhorrent of both: And, although Christians have, ur-

† This missionary, and his countryman Decklan, after being consecrated by the Roman Pontiff, returned to Ireland, about the year 400, and converted numbers to the faith in the country of the Deffies, and in Ossory.

doubtedly, in several ages, fallen into one and the other; it was because their iniquity availed itself of the mask of religion; or, drew false consequences and false conclusions, from the best of principles.

When Christianity was incorporated with the civil constitution, under the admirable administration of Olioll Molt, the abettors of the druidic superstitions were not thrown out of the protection of the legislature. In those days, neither occasional, nor local, worship, was a standard to determine how far men ought to enjoy, or forfeit, the civil rights of civil society. The honesty of religious error was pardoned: The civil crime alone, was punished; and the casual influence of the first, on the second, was detected, by the application of those tests which government can never be at a loss to provide, when there is no latent or crooked intention of opposing public security, to that of innoxious individuals.

The bishops sees erected here in the first age of the church, were very numerous. The Monks spread themselves over the whole face of the land, and edified every where by the sanctity of their lives. They fixed their habitations in deserts, which they cultivated with their own hands, and, in the course of time, rendered the most delightful spots in the kingdom. Those deserts became well-policed cities; and, it is remarkable enough, that to the Monks we owe so useful an institution in Ireland, as bringing great numbers together in one civil community; what creates and extends the useful arts, promotes civilization, and obliges to an observance of those natural laws which the spirit of persecution, and party-laws would exclude.

In these cities, the Monks set up schools, in which they educated the youth, not only of the island, but of the neighbouring nations. They sent their missionaries in shoals into the continent, converting its heathen, and confirming its Christian inhabitants; set up schools in those parts; and laid the foundations of the most flourishing Universities in Europe. They taught the Saxons and Normans the use of letters, and they converted the Cruthneans, or Picts, to Christianity, by the preaching of Columb-Kille, who quitted his right of succession to the throne of Ireland, to reign over the hearts of a foreign people, enemies to his own nation.

When Europe groaned under the servitude of Gothic ignorance, Ireland became the prime seat of learning to all Christendom. Hither the sciences, such as they were in those ages, fled for protection; and here their followers and professors were amply supported. For the converted Saxons, the nation erected, in the west, the college of Mayo, to this day called Mayo of the Saxons; and here it was that the princes Alfred and Oswald received their education. In the city of Ardmacha, (Armagh,) it is affirmed, that no fewer than seven thousand scholars studied, at the same time within its University; although the kingdom, at that time, contained several other academies equally celebrated, if not equally numerous.

Although this nation kept up a correspondence with Rome, by whose missionaries it was converted: Yet our episcopal clergy never applied to that see for bulls of ratification, provisions, or exemptions. The whole ecclesiastical jurisdiction resided in the * see of Ardmacha, and there Rome generally left it, as it was originally granted to saint Patric.

On the death of Laogary, no prince had fairer pretensions to the throne, than Olioll Molt, king of Connaught. His kindred, the sons and grand-sons of Niall, not yet sufficiently established in their several principalities, consented to his election.

* The legatine power originally granted to the bishops of this see, was very seldom recalled, or conferred on the bishop of any other. In the reign of Turlogh the Great, (A. D. 1152) through many abuses in church discipline, the monarch and clergy submitted to a reformation, under cardinal Paparo, in the pontificate of Eugene III. Four archbishoprics were then established, and the primatial jurisdiction of Ardmacha was regulated by a new constitution.

He held several conventions of the states at Teamor; and was the more formidable, as he had a legislative sanction for all his acts. The Hy-Nialls, headed by his successor, cut him off in the battle of Ocha; (A. D. 483.) an event which forms a memorable æra. The elder branch of the Tuathalian line was set aside, and confined to the provincial government of Connaught. The Hy-Nialls got possession of the supreme government, and held it, uninterruptedly, for five hundred and nineteen years.

In the next reign, the Hy-Nialls raised the glory of the nation, by assisting the Dal-Riada race to erect a new sovereignty of Scots in Britain. It was conducted by the sons of Erk, and swelled to a mighty kingdom, in the ninth century, under Kineth Mac Alpin. From this race sprang * the present royal family of England, through the daughter of James the sixth of Scots; who, on the demise of queen Elizabeth, became the first sole monarch of these kingdoms.

The four monarchs, who immediately succeeded Olioll Molt, received the diadem in Teamor. It was a place set apart by the wisdom of the constitution for the inauguration of the kings of Ireland; as well to put an end to elective controversies, as to inform the people what prince they should recognize. This feat of the monarchy and legislation, of the glory and infamy of our predecessors, was pronounced accursed in the reign of Dermot Mac Kervall, at the instigation of Ruan of Lothra, an able and pious man, who exposed the vile legislative spirit of that age. Teamor was no more. Other places were appointed hence-forward, discretionally, for conferring the royal dignity, and for holding the national conventions.

The next more interesting period of these times, commences with the reign of Aod, son of Anmire. He assembled the states of the kingdom at Dromkeat; and, among other grievances, he laid before them that of the Fileas, who, like their predecessors in the days of Concovar Mac Nessa, inflamed the people by factious libels and panegyrics. He purposed to set aside the whole order of these incendiaries; what engaged his kinsman, Columb-Kille, to quit his retreat in the island of Hy, and make a voyage to Ireland, was for preventing so barbarous a resolution. This holy man presented himself at the great council, and prevailed there, to reform, not to abolish, an institution connected with civil liberty, and so interwoven with the manners of the people, that setting it aside thoroughly could have no end, but that of universal confusion.

While the fame of this nation was spreading through foreign lands, the factions

* KINETH MAC ALPIN, the first king of SCOTLAND, (as known by its modern dimensions) was father-in-law to two of our monarchs of Ireland, AODH-FINLIATH and FIANN-SIONNA. From that conquering prince his present MAJESTY is descended, in the thirty-first generation; as appears by the following authentic table.

Kineth, I. A. D.	850	Dav. E. of Huntin.	James.	1460
Constantine.	862	Isabel, Countess of	James.	1488
Donald.	895	Annandale.	James.	1514
Malcolm, I.	946	Robert de Bruce, Earl	Mary.	1542
Kineth.	971	of Carrick, and Lord	James	1565
Malcolm, II.	1004	of Annandale.	Elizabeth. A. D.	
Beatrice.		Robert, I.	Sophia.	
Donchad, R. S.	1034	Margery.	George, I.	1714
Malcolm, III. R. S.	1058	Robert Stuart, II.	George, II.	1727
David, R. S.	1125	Robert Stuart, III.	Frederic, P. of W.	
Henry, E. of Hun-		James.	GEORGE, III.	1760
tingd. & P. of Scotl. }		James.		

among the Hy-Nials disgraced it. Divided among themselves, they united only to disturb the neighbouring provinces, Leinster, particularly; over which they held a cruel hand, by the exaction of the Boromean tribute. The great council of Dromkeat provided no remedy for this injustice; and Brandubh, governor of that province, resisted bravely, to defend by the law of arms, what the iniquity of the legislature left exposed too much to arbitrary will. The monarch himself, (Aodh, the son of Anmirey) suffered by this partiality of the states to his ambition and resentments, having lost his life at the head of his army, in the battle of Dunbolg in Leinster; a signal victory, gained by Brandubh over the Hy-Nials, and a memorable event, which closes the sixth century.

The blow given at Dunbolg to the royal family, united for some time the north and south branches of that race, under the joint administration of Colman Rivey and Aodh Slaney. They pulled that heroic prince down in the battle of Slabhry in Leinster, and thereby established the Hy-Niall power over all the provinces. On conquering the common danger, the Hy-Nials revived their old animosities, and satiated their revenge, either in the open field, or by private murder. Conall Guthbinn, prince of Meath, who plotted and executed the murder of the two reigning monarchs, Aodh Slaney and Colman Rivey, was set aside, as unworthy of sitting on the throne; and his posterity were excluded from any share in the succession, for the space of a hundred and thirty-eight years.

The treachery of Conall Guthbinn gave the nation an utter dislike to the south Hy-Nials. The north Hy-Nials obtained the throne, and did not deserve such a preference. Malcoba, a pious prince, was cut off by his successor Subney Meann: He, in turn, by Congal Claon, a prince of the Rudrician race of Ulad, the determined enemy of his family. Domnal, the brother of Malcoba, and son of Aodh, the son of Anmirey, ascended the throne, and began his administration with an act of extreme justice; that of taking vengeance on the murderer of his predecessor. Congal Claon he defeated in the battle of Dunkehern, and obliged him to fly into Britain; the common asylum of the domestic mal-contented.

Congal Claon remained nine years in exile: And as this parricide bid fair for the destruction of his native country, he merits particular notice in history. In power he possessed some virtues, and in adversity wore the semblance of all. Although an outcast in a foreign country, divided by different languages and interests, he retained a dignity of conduct which often throws a lustre about adversity itself. He kept up his party at home, who supported his interests. Among strangers, he had the iniquity of his conduct to justify, and the more cruel slights which persecute unfortunate princes, to manage: He did the one with plausibility; he conquered the other with patience and dignity. Able, active, perseverant; no ill fortune could depress his spirit, no disappointment eradicate his ambition. He exerted every talent which could win esteem from the great, and every art which could turn that esteem to his own advantage: At home, formidable to his enemies, popular among his friends; abroad, brave, without insolence; flexible, without meanness; he gave the nation a very important advantage over him; that of guarding against the greatness of his genius, and of uniting against him, although otherwise much divided within itself. This he balanced, by reconciling the most opposite interests in Britain, when his cause became an object of consideration. Saxons, Britons, Albanian Scots, and Picts, flocked to his standard. His domestic partizans prepared for his reception, and he landed with safety on the coast of Down.

Domnal, king of Ireland, was not unprepared. He immediately encamped near the enemy at Moyrath, and began as bloody a battle as can be found in the records of

A.D. 700

that age: it continued with various success for six whole days, until * victory declared for the nation on the seventh. Congal Claon, the soul of the enemies army, was defeated and slain at the head of the troops of Ulad. The foreign troops were soon broke with great slaughter; and Domual Breac, king of the Albanian Scots, hardly escaped to Britain, with the sorry remains of a fine army, which should be employed for the defence of the people he so wantonly attacked. This is one of the most important events in the Scottish history; and yet, through the destruction of records in the time of Edward the First, the latter historians of North-Britain were strangers to it.

In the war of Moyrath, the provincialists of Ulad attempted the destruction of their country: The Hy-Nialls saved it, and joined great popularity to great power. In security, they quarreled among themselves: in danger they united; but particularly against the ill-fated people of Uladh and Leinster, whom they persecuted, from old animosities, and punished, from recent injuries. The disaffection of those provinces appeared in frequent insurrections, from age to age: because, by the constitution, it was not admissible to disarm them; and because they were frequently and wantonly provoked to insurrection. In the seventh and eighth centuries, of which we are writing, they made many noble struggles for their liberties; and whatever peace they obtained, it was mostly from the points of their swords. At several times, they brought the Britons and Saxons to their succour. Adamnan and Moling mediated for their country; the one, by his several embassies to the Saxon nation; and the other, by prevailing with the monarch, Finachta the Hospitable, to abolish the Boromeau tribute: but the efforts of these two great men brought only a temporary relief to the provincialists. After the expulsion of the Saxons and Britons, Conall Kinmaghar forced them to accept of his new regulations; and Fergall, his successor, pushing them still farther, lost his life and the flower of his troops against them, in the battle of † Almuine. Aodh Allan took severe revenge in the battle of ‡ Uchbadh, and the provincialists were obliged to submit to the conqueror, on his own terms.

The exclusion of the Slanian Hy-Nialls, who disgraced the history of those times, and of the Tirconall Hy-Nialls, who adorned it, is worthy of notice. The causes which concurred, and the means that were used, to erect a new royal family, to balance that of Tyrone, equally challenge attention. They were very inadequate efforts for limiting the aristocratical power, which stole in by degrees, ever since the sequestration of Meath from the reigning monarchs. Weak as those efforts were, || Flaherty, the son of Longfeach, yielded to them, from an elevation of mind uncommon in that, or in any age. He resigned the crown to a Tirone prince, over whom he was victorious in the field, and sacrificed the future grandeur of his family to the prospect of serving his country, by lessening the number of competitors for the throne.

On Flaherty's abdication, in the year seven hundred thirty-four, a new order of government took place, by alternate succession in two royal families, for two hundred and sixty-eight years, in the race of the Clan-Colmans newly established, and in that of the Kinel-Bogaus newly restored. The establishment began with Aodh Allan, son

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* This engagement, so decisive for the nation, in the year 637, rendered Moyrath, ever since, famous in the Irish annals. It retained the name down to our own time, and was rendered memorable of late by giving a title to the present learned and worthy possessor, Sir John Kewdon, Earl of Moyra.

† Fought on the 11th of December, 722.

‡ Fought the 19th of August, 738, in the fourth

year of Aodh Allan's reign.

|| King of Ireland, from the year 727, to 734. He died at Ard-macha, (where he led a religious life) A. D. 765, in the thirty-first year after his abdication.

10.724

in 1000
19 miles
from Ard-macha

of the late monarch Fergal Mac Malduin. This man, of courage, of genius, and good sense, accused of mal-administration, was cut off in a * battle near Kells, to make room for Donnall, his successor, a very worthy prince, who governed the kingdom happily during twenty years. To him succeeded † Niall Frossach, the son of Aodh Allan, a pious man, who, unable to repress the factious in the provinces, resigned, like his predecessor Flaherty, and died in the island of Hy. Donchad, the son of the late monarch Donnall, took the supreme government, according to the order of alternate succession. He subdued by arms the rebellious provinces, which his predecessor could not reclaim by a milder administration. Aodh Ornidhe succeeded to him. Among his many regulations, he drew up an order in the convention of the states, for exempting the clergy from any future military service; what they were obliged to, in the reigns of his predecessors. His other regulations had not equal good effects. The provinces were extremely factious through his whole reign; and the obedience he got was obtained from the superiority of his arms. During these civil combustions the Normans made their first ‡ incursions into this island.

It may not be improper to take a retrospect of the times we have passed, from the reception of christianity to the end of Aodh Ordnodhe's reign.—In the beginning of this period, we have seen the people changing their religion for the better, and their political constitution for the worse. The family of Niall the Great, excluded the provincial princes from the regal succession, and intended, no doubt, to strengthen the monarchy, by confining it to one royal house; but wise men saw, and the public experienced, that they only exchanged one political evil for another; especially, since the dismemberment of the royal domain of Meath. Under the denomination of north and south Hy-Nialls, they subdivided into four principal families; disturbing the nation by their several pretensions, and deciding them but too often, more by military elections, than by the rules of the constitution. More valiant or heroic princes, no history can produce; were success in ambitious purposes to imply, what we generally denominate, great actions. But, setting aside those prejudices, which the weakness of men has entertained in all ages; we shall find the actions of those princes stripped of most of their lustre, and but too often connected with motives which are never avowed, because they are equally shameful and detestable.

We must, however, observe, that the Hy-Niall princes, with all their faults, were, in the general, very able and very pious monarchs. Bred up from their infancy among noblemen of the same race, whereof several were their rivals, and all in some degree their equals, they were preserved from the follies, and rescued from the vices, which a corrupt education, and the manners of modern courts, beget in more modern princes; vices and follies, which, when matured by sovereign authority, operate so lamentably against the happiness of mankind.—Utter strangers to that distance, which so easily unlearns the equality of human nature, and little exposed to the adulation which deifies wretchedness, enriches the soil of vice, and improves every human weakness beyond the ordinary dimensions, in inferior mortals; most of the Hy-Niall princes wore the diadem with a majesty becoming a free state, and with a conscious dignity becoming the merit which purchased it. Where the genius of the civil

* Fought in the year 743. † He resigned in the eighth year of his reign, and died at Hy; where he was buried, A. D. 778, in the tomb of the kings of Ireland.

‡ First, by pyritical invasions, A. D. 798, on the Hebrides, and the coasts of Ulster. In 807, they made incursions into the heart of the country. In 815, Turges wasted the kingdom with a mighty army; and soon after, (through the dissensions among the native princes) they made fixed settlements in various places near the sea coasts. About the same time, they obtained from the force of their arms considerable settlements in France, England, and Scotland.

Hy, the son of Aodh Ornidhe

was the first of the Hy-Niall

princes who were called Hy-Niall

princes who were called Hy-Niall

constitution required this sort of education; where arrogance was decent; and where a state of subjection must be more certain, even to the most sanguine, than an adoption to sovereign power, it was not difficult to convince princes, that their elevation to regal authority was a trust for public services; and that in a post, where the greatest abilities must be exerted, to encounter the dangers with which it was surrounded. Such were the principles they must necessarily entertain; a necessity which rendered their private morals austere, and their public virtues popular. This is a glorious, but true characteristic of the Hy-Niall race; from which we must not separate another, (the cause of some great failings) a strain of active courage, to which no danger was opposed, but what offered a more than adequate reward, and to which no fear was annexed, but that of falling alive into the hands of a fighting enemy.

With this intrepidity of mind, and those other virtues, which in a great degree atoned for its excesses; the fame of our kings spread far and near. Europe recognized it: and, so sensible was Charles the Great of their merit, that he honoured them in a particular manner with his alliance and friendship; a memorial of which is preserved to this day in * the paintings of the royal palace of Versailles.

When Gothic ignorance expelled, in a manner, all lettered knowledge from the continent; the sciences and arts, such as they were in the sixth and following centuries, fell into the arms, and rested on the protection, of the Hy-Niall princes: those sciences existed by their bounty, and exiled princes existed by their munificence; until a cruel war with strangers altered the face of things in Ireland, and made it what it is. The sciences fled, but were transplanted to the continent, through the means of Scottish professors, brought from Ireland by that great emperor we have just mentioned.

We have spoken above of the strength and weakness, of the wisdom and folly, of this nation: we have given some proofs; and we may wind up in a more general observation.—Their strength lay in their numbers; in their love of liberty; in their discipline, and in their courage. Their weakness arose from a monarchy, hurt in the head and feet, and too much controlled by aristocratical principles: it arose from their remote situation, which lulled them into a false security; and from an opinion that no foreign nation could much injure them: it arose, also, from the state of Europe in those days, when the feudal establishments cut out too much work for inward operations to admit of foreign conquests; and this gave the Normans the lead in the western countries of Europe.

The wisdom of this people appears in making the improvements of the human mind a necessary qualification for obtaining the first dignities in the state; but their improvements were partial and limited. Their folly lay in not ascertaining many points of human knowledge, which it is fatal to leave problematical; and in admitting any political power to grow up to a size, which, in the end, must annihilate every other that the wisdom of ancient legislators provided for the security of the monarchy.

Private, public, religious morals, are originally grafted every where on sound principles: they mix with foul streams in their course; local manners, local interests, and inveterate prejudices, give them a colour of their own; and every complex question is decided through the medium of an arbitrary solution, until time decides through another, and until new notions repeal all.—In truth, the revolutions in human opinion have given us hitherto no advantageous idea of the wisdom of mankind:

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* In an ancient piece of tapestry, in the inner hall of audience in M. De Chamillart's apartments. Here is to be seen the king of Ireland standing in the row of princes in amity with Charlemagne, and drawn with the Irish harp by his right side. Kenned. Genealog. Stuart. p. 181.

and perhaps we are still at a distance from the criterions, which alone can render us useful to one another in society. If this be so, we indulge censure too much relatively to our predecessors in this island: we style them barbarians, very justly; and for reasons which must influence posterity to give ourselves the same denomination; since, like them, we retain manners and customs, which right reason cannot approve, and which the Barbarians in question would absolutely reject, in the days we have described. In our own days, disputes seem to multiply upon us, in proportion to the labours of investigation: and, however great our erudition may be, plain it is, that human knowledge is hardly yet out of its infancy.

When Ireland was first visited by the * Normans, the island was spread over with populous towns, and flourishing colleges, wherein the sciences were taught, and useful arts were cultivated. The civil government was in the hands of the Clan-Colman and Tirone families, by alternate succession, and was consequently exercised by alternate faction. The two excluded families of the same Hy-Niall race were discontented, but not weakened; and the aristocratic power of the provinces was gaining weight very fast, as the monarchy was losing it. Notwithstanding such a state of feeble administration, the colleges and universities enjoyed perfect security, and they reaped the advantages of it. Hither foreign princes fled for refuge, as others sojourned here for cultivating knowledge; and the fiercest rivals for power did not contend more by arms, than by a generous struggle, who should appear foremost in protecting those seminaries, or in doing honour to the illustrious exiles.

This state of things, which arose more from manners than from any established law, received a mighty check, and gradually approached to that period which generally concludes in Barbarism. The Normans, who issued forth from the same Gothic hive with the old Saxons and Franks, infested this kingdom, first by their incursions, and shortly after by actual settlements. They carried on a general war, at the same time, on the coasts of France, England, and modern Scotland; and spread the terror of their arms through all the countries contiguous to them. In the reigns of Aodh Ordnidhe, and Concovar, his successor, they gave, and received, defeats. In the reign of Niall Caille, they invaded the east of Ireland with a fleet of a hundred and twenty ships; set Turges at their head, and spread desolation every where between the sea and the Shannon. Turges fortified himself on the lake of Rive, in the most commodious place possible for mastering the two provinces of Connaught and Meath: he proved a most cruel tyrant. The monarch of the island, a brave and good man, stopped his progress from the north; Feidlim, the son of Crimthan, king of Munster, a very able man, covered the south; but, through interested views, he basely enjoyed the miseries of the rest of his countrymen.

Malachy, the son of Malruany, claims our attention; as he delivered his country by stratagem, what Feidlim neglected to do by open force, when not permitted to do it in his own way. Niall Caille, the monarch, gained a signal victory over the Normans, in Tirconall, at the time that Turges was seized at the lake of † Uar by Malachy. Turges was put to death, and the Normans were thrown into such a panic, on the loss of their chief, as made them an easy prey, for some time, to the exaspe-

* Normans and Gauls were the general names given in Ireland to this people; the one implying men from the north; the other signifying foreigners, or strangers. They were also called Lochlons, or pyrates. Their more particular names of Dubh-Galls, Fingalls, Danshir, or Danes, are likewise frequently found in our annals. The English called them Oestmen and Danes. In France, they got the name of Normans. They conquered England under William, Duke of Normandy, A. D. 1066; and, in a little more than a hundred years after, they made a conquest in Ireland, under Henry II. the first of the Plantagenets.

† Loch Uar, near Mullingar, in the county of Clan-Colman.

rated natives. Feidlim died: the monarch Niall was unfortunately drowned in the river of * Callen: and Malachy, according to the rule of alternate succession, mounted the throne; which he so well merited, by a series of worthy actions, before his accession.

Mean time, the Normans invaded the kingdom with a fleet of an hundred and forty sail at one time; not long after with an hundred and sixty, and struck terror through every quarter of the kingdom. Some of the mal-content princes joined them. The king of Ireland convened the states at Ardmacha, and they broke up without coming to any resolutions worthy of them. All was sedition and faction within; from without, Amlaif, the son of a Norman king, arrived in Ireland, and all his countrymen united under his standard. Malachy convened the states, on the defection of Munster, and brought that province to its duty, attended by the primate. He convened the states a third time at † Rath Aodh, and salutary measures were taken. And in this state of things, the excellent, pious, and unfortunate Malachy, left this kingdom, having died on the thirtieth of November, eight hundred and sixty-three. Malachy, as prince of Meath, rescued his country from thralldom: as king of Ireland, he distinguished himself by the equity of his administration, by his skill in war, and by his moderation after victory. He distinguished himself still more, by the most heroic of all virtues, that passive courage under great distresses, which provided equally for personal, as well as national security; so far as it was possible to obtain either.

The incursions of the Normans continued now forty-eight years. In the course of that time, they made settlements on the sea coasts, and began to fortify themselves within strong † stone walls, works until then unknown in Ireland. Hating and hated, betraying and betrayed; their confederacies with Irish factions were of short duration, and the Irish monarchs had generally the advantage over them in the field. The crazy state of the government was their best security. Those monarchs, chosen, by alternate succession, out of two royal and rival families, could not assemble a sufficient legislative power; and every attempt to do it proved ineffectual. The constitution, languishing under internal obstructions, and struggling with itself, as well as with exterior danger, could only barely hold out: it could not remedy itself. The patriotism of a few served only to prolong the disorder, and prevent that dissolution, which, in some cases, is the most desirable event that can happen; as order may rise out of confusion, and as true patriots may then be invested with sufficient power.

After the death of Malachy I. Hugh Finliath, prince of the north Hy-Niall, and the son of the late monarch Niall Cailne, mounted the throne. From being a bad and turbulent subject, he became a good king. Possessed of all those qualities which render princes popular, he gained friends; and yet, in the general, no monarch was worse obeyed. Flan Sionna, prince of the south Hy-Niall, and son of Malachy I. succeeded to Hugh Finliath. His reign was long, and resembled that of his predecessor.

Provinces retained, too long a time, the privilege of deciding for themselves, in certain disputes with their neighbouring provinces. The reigning monarchs wanted sufficient power; and the authority of the states, partially convened, was little regarded. The king could interpolate only, by throwing his weight into the lighter scale; and was right in so doing, not only from justice, which lies more generally on the weaker side, but from the policy of permitting no faction to rise high enough, to crush the other, and the monarchy itself, in consequence.

* Near Ardmacha. † Now Ratoath in Meath. ‡ Before the building of those fortifications, the use of stone works in Ireland was confined wholly to the building of churches; and some considerable ruins of those times, still remain.

Munster was at this time governed by as worthy a prince as lived in that age. Cormac, the son of Cullinan archbishop of Cashel. The days of Cormac's youth were employed in improving his mind and virtues, under Snedgus, the learned and pious abbot of Dyfert Dermot. He was a thorough master of the learning of that age. Among others he signalized himself in lettered knowledge. Some of his works have been preserved, though theirs have been lost in the long anarchy that succeeded their times. Cormac's historical remains were inserted in the work, intitled the *Flaith of Cashel*. They were in the hands of Sir James Ware, and of several other antiquarians of the seventeenth century; and we trust that they may be found still in some foreign or domestic repository.

Soon after Flan Sionna's accession to the throne, he espoused Malmaria, queen of his predecessor, and daughter of the famous Kineth Mac Alpine, king of the Albanian Scots; who, after conquering the Picts, enlarged his kingdom vastly, and extended the Scottish power southward, to the borders of Dun-Edain, now called Edinburgh, in Loudaushire. By her first marriage, Malmaria became the mother of Niall Glundubh, Flan's successor, and the common father of the family of O'Neill, so celebrated in our annals, down to the accession of James the Sixth, of Scots, to the throne of these kingdoms.

By his marriage with Malmaria, Flan superintended the education of the young Princes her sons, and betrothed his daughter Gormlatha (by his first consort) to Niall Glundubh. This alliance, and the consanguinity brought into the two families, through that illustrious Princess of Scotland, ought, one should think, to produce their proper effect of concord between the north and south Hy-Nialls. But this effect did not follow; and we find, that the natural affections had as little force among the Princes of that age as those of our own. Niall Glundubh, Roydamna of the kingdom, flew into open hostilities against his father-in-law, and was defeated. They were afterwards reconciled, and continued so. Flan Sionna died at Taltion, in the thirty-seventh year of his reign. He was a lover of justice, and gave frequent proofs in the administration of it. Frank, liberal, and resolute, he departed from no measures proper to be taken with friends and enemies. He was, in fact, an heroic Prince, and a good man.

Niall Glundubh succeeded. Through the happy reconciliation between him, and his predecessor, what still subsisted between him and his brother-in-law, Conor O'Ma-Jaghlin, he came to the throne with great advantages. These were counterbalanced by fresh invasions from the Normans, to aid their friends, already too powerful. All the provinces were alarmed, and the most perverse factions coalesced in the cause of their country. The King marched to the relief of Munster, and proved victorious in many skirmishes. He avoided a general engagement, and sent his orders to Ugary, who acted against the enemy in Leinster, to stand for some time on the defensive. Whether the King was ill obeyed, or whether Sithric, the Norman commander, forced the Leinster men to an engagement, is not known. Sithric, however, obtained a complete victory over the provincialists at Kinsuad near Timolin.

To repair the loss at Kinsuad, the King carried on the war with great caution, until his new levies from all the provinces were completed, and until his ally and kinsman, Constantine, King of the Albanian Scots, proved so successful against their common enemy, as to draw off from Munster numbers of Normans, for the relief of their countrymen in Scotland. Ivor and Sithric, commanders of those who remained in Ireland, changed their operations into a defensive war, and retired to their capital hold in Dublin. About this town they defended themselves by strong entrenchments, which the King attempted to force at * Killmosamog. No operation

* Formerly a church and parish, which lay S. W. of the city.

could be more unfortunate or fatal. The King, his nobility, his whole army, were cut in pieces: and thus ended the short reign of Niall Glundubh, a Prince whose virtues exceeded his failings; and who, with great advantages and great skill in war, was yet unfortunate.

Conor O'Malaghlin, Roydamna of Ireland, being killed in the battle of Killmofamog, his brother, Donchad, succeeded in the throne of Ireland. He was the son of Flan Sionna, and signalized the first year of his reign by the defeat of the Normans, in the battle of Timacneagh in the Teamorian Kianachta. In that engagement he amply revenged the death of his brother-in-law and predecessor, Niall Glundubh; he, however, soon after put to death his paternal brother, Donall, the son of Malmaria of Scotland.

Two extraordinary characters distinguish these times: their rank, their birth, and their abilities would bring them forward, and give them the lead in times of the greatest eclat: Callaghan, or Cellachan, of Cashel, King of Munster; and Murkertach, the Roydamna: the one was artful, insinuating, and popular; the other generous, resentful, and sincere. Cellachan turned out an enemy to his country; Murkertach sacrificed every just resentment to its interests. Having taken such different sides, the one endeavoured to ensnare the other by negotiation, and became the victim of his own treachery. Murkertach seized on him, in the midst of his own province, and brought him a captive to Tyrone. Never did one enemy experience more generosity in another.

Murkertach† made improvements in the art of war. His character lies entombed in the history of a people hardly enquired after in our own time. He had as great a genius for war as any man that this island has, perhaps, ever produced. The endowments of his heart were still greater. He, for some time, valued himself and his party too much; but, loving his country more, he relented, and reconciled himself to his sovereign and brother-in-law. Thence-forward he never relapsed into faction. Of all enemies, he was the most generous; of all commanders, the most affable. He never descended from his dignity; but reconciled familiarity to a rank, which, in the ordinary course of things, must be kept separate from it. Elevated, benevolent, and captivating, he was unhappily taken off at a time when his character put him in possession of a power, which probably would have relieved his country from bondage.

Congalach, the son of Malmithy, succeeded to Donchad O'Malachlin. How this Prince, whose family was excluded from the succession for two hundred and seventeen years, could be raised to the throne before Flaherty O'Neill, whose turn it was now to govern, by the rule of alternate succession; we cannot otherwise account for, than from his great popularity, his military abilities, and the condescension of the legal claimant, who was his close kinsman.

Whatever his merits were, (and he certainly exerted some very distinguishably) yet his revival of an old claim to the royal succession, was as impolitic a step as could be taken. The other excluded house of Tironall was at this time governed by as able a man as any in the kingdom, and who set up pretensions which he had power to support, and did support. He indeed co-operated for some time with the King against the Normans, and assisted in wasting Dublin, newly re-peopled. But upon some disgust, real or pretended, he turned his arms against Congalach; drove him out of his hereditary country of the Teamorian Meath; got himself, by a military election, proclaimed King of Ireland; and received the homages of Munster.

† He received the ascetic name of Muirkertach na Geochall Croceann, from his invention of leathern coverings, impervious to the arrows and javelins of the enemy.

and other provinces.—This extraordinary man, Roderic O'Cananan, having no more to fear from his rival, marched against the Normans of Dublin, and obtained a signal victory over them. They lost six thousand men in the battle, without including irregulars, or attendants; but Roderic himself was accidentally slain at the close of the victory. And in this manner was Congalach relieved from the usurper of his regal dignity.

On his return, he very unwisely hastened to take vengeance on the province of Munster, before he provided for his security at home. Blacar, Governor of Dublin, and commander of the Normans, seized upon the advantage left open to him, and from his head-quarters in Kenanus*, plundered the south Hy-Niall, without mercy. Congalach returned to drive off the invaders, but without finishing effectually the business he was upon in Munster; and those measures drew on him the arms of his successor Domnall O'Neill, who hitherto spared him.—This unfortunate Prince made one effort for re-establishing his power and character. He held a council of his followers on the banks of the Liffey, and marched thence against Dublin. The Normans amused him with a shew of submission to his demands, and their stratagem succeeded. They fell upon him unaware at Toi-Gioghraha, where they slew him, and cut to pieces a considerable part of his army.

He was succeeded by Domnall O'Neill, a valiant unfortunate man. This Prince, whose right of succession was undoubted, had but little obedience paid to his authority, excepting what he obtained from the point of his sword, and this was not very considerable. The last memorable action of Domnall O'Neill was that at Kilmona; wherein he had the misfortune of being defeated by the united forces of the Normans and Teamorian Hy-Nialls. His worthy successor, Malachy, repaired this disgrace to him, by the complete victory he obtained at Teamor over the Norman and Leinster troops. The unfortunate monarch himself, after a reign of twenty-four years, died a penitent at Ardmaccha, in the year 980. He was the sixteenth and last monarch of the Tyrone line, and the forty-fifth of the Hy-Niall race.

Malachy II. so well recommended by personal merit, and so justly intitled by the prescription of alternate succession, mounted the throne without opposition. He began his reign as he ended it, by giving the strongest proof that the public good was the principal object of his administration. He led his troops against the Normans, and forced them to accept such terms as he imposed upon them; particularly that of giving up all the captives in their power, together with their several possessions and properties.

The fires so lately extinguished began to kindle anew; and the fatigued monarch had no resource left, but joining with the ablest of the provincial Princes, for putting some end to the calamities of the nation. This was the celebrated Brian, King of Munster, afterwards surnamed Boromy. In conjunction, they reduced the Normans, and other mal-contents, and soon after fell out among themselves. The King of Munster led his forces through the south Hy-Niall with little opposition, and established his head-quarters at Teamor, the ancient seat of so many heathen and christian kings. Malachy defeated him in one engagement, and obliged him to retire: their forces being extremely unequal, he could not pretend to face him in another. Brian renewing the war, harassed Meath and Conaught, from his head-quarters in Athlone. To give, however, a good impression of his intentions, he proposed a convention of the states for settling the nation; Malachy agreed. The chiefs of the kingdom met at Dundalk; but in such a variety of tempers, interests, and pretensions, their deliberations came to nothing. Malachy alone, deserted by the north Hy-Nialls, gave

* Now Kells in Meath.

the best turn to affairs that they could possibly admit. He entered into a treaty with his enemy; and, after having stipulated for the government of the south Hy-Niall, he resigned the crown and regal dignity into the hands of his vassal. The expedient was necessary, though not constitutional. He gave the title of Brian the best colour it could bear, that of conferring his own upon him. He hereby preserved an able and virtuous Prince from the odium of open usurpation; and he supported him afterwards, as he engaged to do, by his whole interest, which was still very considerable.

Brian was fifty years of age before he made any figure above his equals; and he reigned over Munster twenty-six, before he was raised to the chief imperial dignity. Although he was not born to a crown, he gave proofs, in every period, of his deserving one. To the church, he was a true protector; to the sciences, a patron; to mankind, a friend. Brave, pious, magnificent, he conquered many enemies, more by his unaffected benevolence than by arms. Discerning from nature, knowing from experience, he shewed himself inflexible in nothing, but the administration of justice to the injured. In other respects, he accommodated himself to the stubborn manners of the times; giving the best turn they could bear to things which it would be imprudent to attempt reforming. To every act of concession, or authority, he annexed a dignity, which sequestered meanness from the one, as well as severity from the other; and his wisdom was admirable in nothing more, than the arts by which he extended his influence with his power. His bodily endowments were equal: He was so framed, as to undergo the rudest fatigues of war at the age of fourscore; and his example alone was sufficient to discipline, as well as animate, the troops he raised. In a word: He was superior to every Prince of his time, and inferior to Malachy in one instance only, that of sacrificing a crown to the good of his country.

On this great man's elevation to the throne, he was rather to be pitied than envied. Without the co-operation of the Prince who resigned to him, he would probably be obliged himself to resign in favour of some other powerful Oligarch, or reign with his faction in the places subservient to his government. With Malachy's assistance, he actually governed over most of the provinces. In the fourth year of his reign, he obliged all, except the north Hy-Niall, to recognize his title; and this last province he subdued to his authority (although only for a short time) towards the close of his reign.

The Normans he kept to their obedience, having not dared to give him or the nation much disturbance during the greater part of his reign.—The north Hy-Niall he found governed by Aodh O'Neill, the heroic grandson of the heroic Murkertach, of whom we spoke above. He was an inflexible enemy to Malachy, and improved every opportunity of revenge, to distress Brian and him; for they, no doubt, deprived him of the right of alternate succession to the throne, as it had been established for several ages in the Tyrone and Clan-Colman houses. It was with a view of re-establishing this right, that he fell furiously on the province of Ulster, in the year 1004; but he lost his life, though not the victory, in the great battle of Craoe-Tulcha. He was succeeded by his brother Flaherty; who, although once obliged to give hostages for his obedience to the new government, was never on good terms with Brian or Malachy. Malruany O'Maldory, chief of Ticonall, was some time in custody with Brian, at his royal seat at Kincoradh, and enlarged. Brian acted imprudently, although generously, in letting his enemy loose against him. Mulruany invaded Conaught, a province obedient to the King's government, and laid a considerable part of it in ashes. Flaherty, at the same time, attacked Malachy's hereditary country in the south Hy-Niall, while the latter was engaged with the Normans of Dublin.

Thus stood affairs towards the end of Brian Boromey's reign, when the whole province of Leinster revolted, and called the Normans from all quarters to its assistance. Fires, which could never be sufficiently extinguished, flamed now with great fierceness, from the accession of combustibles that were long collecting. And when we consider the importance of the event, the animosity of parties, and numbers of considerable persons ranged on either side of the contest; we will find no civil war, since that of Moyrath, in any degree equal to this. Brian ended it gloriously, although little to the advantage of the nation, in the great battle of Clontarfe, near Dublin*. At the age of eighty-eight he gained the victory, and lost his life there, in the cause of his country. His death was lamented by his friends, who were retained by the attractions which virtue annexeth to every noble accomplishment; and by enemies, who now recognized, with a relenting sensibility, the worth which hitherto stood in their way.

On the fall of Brian, Malachy II. resumed the throne, which he filled with dignity, and resigned at the end of a reign of twenty-three years, with a greatness of mind superior to any dignity.

The battle of Clontarfe dissolved a power formidable to the monarchy and to the nation: domestic contention proved the fruit of it. The two sons of Brian Boromey (Donchad and Teige) fell out among themselves, and the discontented princes of Desmond and Ossory availed themselves of the public disturbances. The fortune of Munster seemed buried at once with the great prince who governed it through a course of thirty-eight years: And none, but Malachy II. alone, could retard the dissolution, to which the monarchy was hastening. He began his second administration, by improving the advantages gained in the late battle over the Normans and Leinstermen. By a happy use of his authority, he gained upon the north Hy-Nialls, to join their forces to his. He drove the Normans of Dublin into the Dun†, and laid the rest of the town in ashes. Leinster he reduced by the terror of his arms; and he succeeded wonderfully in the more desperate undertaking of reconciling the provinces to their own common interests. It was, indeed, but a temporary concord, of which he alone was the cement. After a second reign of eight years and some months, he died at one of his royal seats, in the island of Cro, in Loch-hannin, in the seventy-second year of his age. He was a brave, wise, pious man, who sacrificed inflexibly every personal consideration to the good of his country; and who yielded to political evils which could not be remedied. Magnificent, sincere, compassionate; worth in distress never found a more inquisitive or liberal patron, and he replaced by benefactions all that fortune denied to the indigent.

47. 1022 On the death of Malachy II. in the year one thousand and twenty-two, the best efforts of several great men, to bring the constitution back to the Tuathalians, or better principles, were frustrated. An inter-reign of seventy-two years ensued; in which Donchad, the son of Brian Boromey; Dermot Mac Mal-na-mbo, king of Leinster; and Turlogh O'Brian, made some show of royalty, by assuming the kingly title; what none but their several factions recognized.

47. 1100 In the beginning of the twelfth century, this kingdom was divided between two great men, Donald O'Lachluin, and Murkertach O'Brien; the one, as head of the royal Hy-Niall line, claiming a prescriptive right of succession, from his family; the other, claiming that of the new constitution, which admitted the provincial kings, so long, and, as was pretended, so unjustly excluded. These two princes contended for more than twenty years, and the people were ground between them. The fault lay in the faction, not in the men. The young king of Connaught, Turlogh the

* April 23, 1014.

† The Castle of Dublin stands on the foundations of this Dun.

Great, following the example of Brian Boromey, set himself in opposition to those princes towards the end of their motley administration. He well nigh wrested all power out of the hands of both; and out of the hands of O'Brian, he wrested it effectually, some two years before that prince's death.

On the death of Domnal O'Lachlin, no other provincial governor was alone able to contend for the succession, with the king of Connaught. He was acknowledged king of Ireland, by the majority of the nation, and for twenty years before his death, he was so in fact. He met, however, with great opposition, and the most powerful attacked, or served him, occasionally, as their passions or interests, drove them into contradictory measures. Turloch the Great (as he was styled) stood superior to all his enemies.—Able, determined, and indefatigable, he raised the power of Connaught higher than any of his predecessors, since the time of Olioll Molt, and tempered resentment so judiciously with placability, that he drew advantages from events which quite disconcert the generality of princes, who arise to power, as he did, more by strength of genius, than goodness of title. As much as the times would permit, he reformed the civil government, and erected a mint at Clonmacnoise for the coinage of silver. In the ecclesiastical matters, his great piety engaged him to acquiesce in the reformation introduced by cardinal Paparo; a reformation, which set aside the ancient ecclesiastical constitution, hitherto the freest in all Christendom, but necessarily abridged of its immunities at this time; as the Irish church suffered enormous abuses in latter ages, from its looseness of discipline, and variety of liturgies.

Towards the end of this monarch's reign, Murkertach O'Lachlin, prince of the north Hy-Niall, and grand-nephew to the late Domnal O'Lachlin, became a powerful rival to him. They attacked each other, with various success, by sea and land. The latter brought the remains of the Normans, and the naval power of Scotland, to support his title; but was defeated. The death, however, of Turloch the Great, ended the contest, and delivered up to Murkertach the sovereignty of the greater part of the island.

This turn in favour of Murkertach, seemed to promise well for the restoration of the Hy-Niall race. But it had no such effect: It was frustrated by the contumacy of Oligarchs, whose power rose on the ruin of that family, and whose depression must be the certain consequence of a regular monarchy. Roderic O'Conor, the son of Turloch the Great, opposed the election of Murkertach to the throne; but was forced to yield: And from his submission, the new king was invested with the government of the kingdom, in as ample a manner, as any of his predecessors, for several ages.

Murkertach was not long possessed of his high authority, when he was fatally prevailed upon to abuse it, by very arbitrary and imprudent measures. This turn in his administration plunged him into a very unjust invasion of the provincial rights of Ulad. Resistance was the consequence: And, after a reign of ten years, he fell a sacrifice to the vengeance of an injured people, in the battle of Litterluin, in the year one thousand one hundred and sixty-six. The Hy-Niall interest was buried in his grave; and a way was opened for the succession of Roderic, king of Connaught, the son of Turloch the Great, the last, and the most unfortunate, of all the Irish monarchs.

The states of the kingdom appeared unanimous in the election of Roderic, to the throne. He convened them in Dublin, the capital of the Normans, and the chief seat of the little power they had left, in this kingdom; but several of those states gave their voices at that election with great insincerity. They yielded to a power, which they could not at present resist: And by a species of loyalty, easily accounted for, they contended who should be most forward in the support of an establishment, which they expected one day to overturn. Roderic was inaugurated, and his

monarchical rights were acknowledged in the most solemn manner: But he soon experienced the feeble security of a recognition rather exacted from the faction, than won from the affection, of divided provinces.

Since the death of Malachy II. this nation was falling into a state of political reprobation. Each province set up for itself; and the monarchy grew indifferent, the monarch hateful, to the majority of the chieftains. When Roderic mounted the throne, their measure of iniquity was full. He laboured to unite all parties for common defence, against a desperate provincial tyrant and his foreign allies; but the Oligarchs of the time, were rather unanimous in rejecting their king, than the common enemy: They loved their country only in the second place: Domestic animosities, personal revenge, were uppermost; and to the gratification of these passions, they sacrificed every consideration favourable to their native country, or useful to their own common safety.—What ensued was very natural; although, on a superficial view, it appears extremely surprizing. The majority of these chieftains, deserting the reigning prince, under whose standard they could easily preserve their liberties, delivered up the nation, as a prey to its enemies; and they certainly well deserved the treatment they received from the new masters they set over themselves.

There seems to have been little intercourse between Ireland and England, previous to the reign of Henry II. There is no account of any English settlements having been made in this island before that period. The colonies of Norwegians and Danes chiefly inhabited the environs of Waterford and Limerick, and were in subsequent times called Ostmen by the English.

In the reign of Henry II. an attempt on Ireland was made for the first time, from the English coast. Historians have given to the expedition from England that then took place, the name of conquest of Ireland: they have ascribed the honour of it to king Henry II. and have moreover conferred upon him and his successors from that period, a rightful claim to the dominion and obedience of Ireland and its inhabitants.

The fact is, however, that only a settlement was made on the Irish coast, of the same nature as those which have been formed since on the coasts of Africa, Asia, or America. The first adventurers were two private gentlemen, Fitz-Stephens and Fitzgerald. They crossed the Irish channel with about three hundred men in the year 1171; and they were soon after followed by Earl Strongbow, with twelve hundred more.

If the Irish had been united under one king, or common leader, as the Scots were, when Edward I. attempted the conquest of Scotland, or if the English adventurers had, on their first landing, alarmed the whole Irish nation, by loudly proclaiming a design of universal indiscriminate invasion and dominion, as the same Edward I. did, it is not to be doubted that they would soon have been overpowered by numbers, in the same manner as the English garrisons left by Edward I. in Scotland were overpowered, and driven out of the country.

But Ireland, at the time we are speaking of, was divided into a very great number of independent districts, that had little more connection with each other than what arose from mutual neighbourhood. And those Irish who lived on the northern or western side of the island, had consequently but little connection with those who inhabited, or made settlements, or invasions, on the southern or eastern coast.

The English adventurers, besides, found friends in the country to whom they were welcome, as hath been the case in all the settlements made by Europeans in remote parts of the world. They even had been expressly invited by an Irish chieftain who was possessed of the opposite shore (his name was Dermot Mac-Murrough): they were

to assist him in a war in which he was then engaged: and Earl Strongbow was to marry his daughter.

The military operations of the little English army, and of the Irish ally who had invited them over, proved successful; and the adventurers were rewarded for their assistance by having lands allotted to them in the country. They formed a settlement, or colony, in the neighbourhood of Dublin.

The report of the advantages which Fitz-Stephens, Fitzgerald, and Earl Strongbow had met with, reached England. A few more adventurers soon followed, in order to partake of the success; and among them the next year, was no less a person than King Henry II. himself. This prince proved still more welcome to the Irish than the adventurers who had preceded him. As he had brought only five hundred men with him, he caused no alarm. The Irish chieftains were flattered to see so important a man as the king of the great island that lay on the opposite side of the channel, come to pay them a visit. They resorted to him from several parts of the country, to make alliance and treaties of amity with him. It may be observed, that Henry II. gave the Irish chieftains the title of kings; and this style continued to be used by his successors so late as eighty years afterwards, if not later*.

Henry II. after staying about five months in Ireland, withdrew, well satisfied with his expedition, and leaving his subjects in possession of some districts on the eastern coast. Such was the first settlement made by the English in Ireland, and the first origin of the dominion which the English crown has in subsequent times claimed over this country.

The successors of King Henry II. did not pursue the design of conquering Ireland. Satisfied with having their power introduced into the island, and recognized in a certain district or portion of it, they made no attempt to extend it farther. The colony was left to thrive by its own resources and strength; the reinforcements it received during a long series of years, being only the successive and occasional arrival of new English adventurers and settlers. The English settlement in Ireland did not accordingly become extended beyond its first limits. It was rather the reverse. The land or ground occupied by the English colony, or the English pale, as it was called, reached only a few miles around Dublin, at the time of King Edward III. that is, an hundred and fifty years after the first settling of the colony.

This straitening of the English pale had been owing to two causes. In the first place, the hostilities committed by the settlers against the districts by which they were surrounded, had in time raised an alarm, and confederacy against them, which the first adventurers had not met with.

In the second place, the successors to those persons of English blood, or race, who had possessed themselves of lands at some distance up the country, had gradually renounced their dependance on the primary settlement, as they ceased to want its support; which has been the case with all the colonies, whenever they have ceased to derive advantage from their connection with the mother country: and they had, even in process of time, adopted the dress, the language, and the laws, of the native Irish.

These English families, now transformed into Irish inhabitants, were moreover particularly jealous to oppose the extension of the pale or colonial territory, and the farther spreading of the English government, and law. They held their lands by Irish tenures, and by the Brehon, or Irish law; which, in regard to property in land, and matters of descent, totally differed from the law of England. Now, if the English law had been suffered to prevail, these families must have been dispossessed, and

* The following expressions are to be found in a letter sent by Henry III. to one of the Irish chieftains. "The King to King Thomond, greeting." (Rex, Regi Thomond, salutem.)

compelled to give up their lands to other persons. In order to secure themselves still farther, and more completely to disclaim any connection with the English laws, they had even assumed Irish surnames, such as Mac-Yoris, Mac-Morice, Mac-Gibbon, &c.

Owing to the circumstances above described, a new class of inhabitants had arisen in Ireland, distinct both from the English colony, and the native Irish. It was formed of those English families who had at any time renounced subjection to the English government, either through convenience, or motives of personal interest. The English colonists used to bestow upon them the appellation of degenerate English. Numerous tribes, or clans, were formed of them, however; who frequently proved very serious enemies, or antagonists, to the English colony.

At length, in the thirty-sixth year of the reign of King Edward III. a new expedition into Ireland was projected in England, (A. D. 1361.)—The expedition, this time, was in fact undertaken against the degenerate English.

Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the king's second son, was the leader of the enterprize. The motive which induced the prince to engage in it, was this. He had married the daughter and only child of William Bourke, surnamed the Red Earle, who was possessed of very extensive independent tracts of land, in the country, but had continued to preserve a connection with the colonial government. After the death of the earl, the next male heirs had claimed his estates, in conformity to the Irish law; which, being grounded on notions of warfare and defence, did not allow lands to descend to females. These heirs had accordingly put themselves in possession of those lands which had been occupied by the late earl. On that occasion they assumed Irish surnames, by way of farther security; and in short, turned degenerate English. Duke Lionel laid claim to those lands, in right of his wife, grounding his claim on the English common law; and his coming over to Ireland, was in order to expel that Sept, or Clan, of degenerate English, who had several years before taken possession of them, and had assumed the name of Mac-Williams. The duke had married the Red Earle's daughter in England: her mother having fled thither with her infant daughter, immediately after the death of the earl, who was killed while endeavouring to quell an insurrection among his followers or tenants. The duke had been induced to this match, by the prospect of recovering those extensive tracts of land which had been formerly occupied by the earl.

The duke's expedition was in reality undertaken both against the Irish law, and against all those persons of English blood who had adopted it, and were possessed of land by virtue of the Irish law, and in conformity to the Irish mode of tenure.

Duke Lionel did not dissimble his general hostile intentions. In his progress through the country, he forbade all persons of degenerate English race to approach his camp. At the same time, those degenerate tribes he had come over to dispossess, proved to be very numerous. They were headed by two chieftains: the one was surnamed Mac-William Fighter (Nether), and the other Mac-William Oughter (Farther). They were settled in Connaught. Those lands situated in Ulster which had been possessed by the Red Earle, had been seized upon by a Sept of native Irish, belonging to the O'Neals, who at the same time, expelled several English landholders out of that northern division of Ireland, and had as little inclination as the new tribes of Mac-Williams, to comply with the claims of the duke.

As Duke Lionel had brought from England only an inconsiderable force, and met no support within the country, he was at length obliged to withdraw. Before he finally left Ireland, however, he held a parliament in Kilkenny, while he was encamped there; (the king his father had invested him with the office of lord deputy before his departure from England); and he got that famous statute, which is known by the name of The Statute of Kilkenny.

This statute is very remarkable: it shews that tyrannical laws are an old evil in Ireland. The intent of it was to reclaim the degenerate English, and to bring to obedience by penal laws, those whom force of arms had proved insufficient to subdue.

It was recited in the preamble of the statute, that the English of the realm of Ireland, before the arrival of Duke Lionel, were become mere Irish in their language, names, apparel, and manner of living: had rejected the English law, and submitted to those of the Irish, with whom they had united by marriage-alliance, to the ruin of the English interest. It was therefore enacted, that marriage, and gossipred, with the Irish, should be punished as high treason. If any man of English race should use an Irish name, the Irish language and apparel, or ride without saddle, &c. his tenements should be seized. If any one claims the Irish or Brehon law, he should be adjudged a traitor. It was made penal for persons of English race, to allow the Irish to creaght or graze upon their lands; or to entertain any of their minstrels, rhymers, or news-tellers, &c. &c.

This statute was no more than a peevish and revengeful expression of the resentment Duke Lionel felt from the opposition he had met with, and the loss of those lands he had come over to claim. The statute was not to have any obedience paid to it, out of the small compass of the English pale. It was, in reality, a declaration of perpetual war, both against the native Irish, and against those persons and chieftains of English race who were settled out of the limits of the colony, and had been more or less necessitated to adopt the Irish customs and laws.—The fact is, that considerations of personal convenience in a remote country, and especially of self-interest, had been the principal motives of the conduct and the degeneracy of most of the English settlers. Their mortal enmity to the English nation, has perhaps also been exaggerated. At any rate, those clauses of the statute of Kilkenny which have been above recited, were not very likely to make them better friends. Thus ended the second expedition into Ireland.

The third expedition was undertaken not long afterwards, by King Richard II. This prince landed in Ireland with a very considerable army.

The Irish chieftains acted in regard to Richard in the same manner as they had done with Henry II. Though they were unwilling to give up their lands and cattle to foreign adventurers, and to adopt laws which they neither understood nor were used to, they were proud to see an English king among them. As Richard was willing to exhibit his greatness and magnificence to them, so, they were desirous to display their consequence and their urbanity. They flocked to the king's court from all quarters. No less than seventy-five independent Irish chiefs the king entertained with great splendor. The Earl of Ormond, who spoke the Irish language, and Henry Castil, who had married an Irish lady, officiated as interpreters.—Four of the chieftains, O'Nial, O'Connor, O'Brien, and Mac-Murchad, were seated at the king's table, clothed in robes of state. Some were knighted. They, at first, objected to the offer; alledging that every Irish lord, or king, was knighted, or made a warrior of, when seven years of age: but being told that they were now to be made so, conformably to the practice adopted among all the famous nations of Europe, they submitted to the ceremony. After staying some months, Richard departed, without having increased the English pale and the sphere of the English laws.

From the reign of Richard II. no expedition was attempted from England into Ireland during the space of above two hundred years, during which period a constant state of warfare continued between the English colony or pale, and the whole country; with some intervals however of intermission as to actual hostilities.

The colony were at constant war with the native Irish, in consequence of their colonial laws and provisions, according to which the Irish were considered as perpe-

tual outlaws.—The courts of justice erected within the pale allowed them no remedy in cases of trespasses committed against them; nor did they adjudge punishment for slaying a native Irish*.

The colony were in a state of perpetual war with the degenerate English, in consequence of the statute of Kilkenny, which, as hath been above cited, had made such degeneracy high treason and death.

The impotency of this statute, and in general the impolicy of the measures pursued by the managers of the colony affairs, both in regard to the native Irish, and to the degenerate English, soon became conspicuous. An alliance and confederacy took place between these, of a closer nature than formerly. And the consequence at length was, that the settlement became to be so straitened, that those who were possessed of land on the borders, were necessitated to buy peace from the surrounding chieftains, having agreed to pay them an annual stipend, which became to be a settled tribute, known by the name of black rent.

Notwithstanding its weakness, the English colony continued however to exist;—partly because it was well known, that, had an universal combination taken place to effect its final expulsion, it would have received assistance from England to make the attempt both difficult and dangerous; and partly, because the settlement was, in itself, equal in point of strength to any of the numerous lords, or chieftains, who surrounded it. The colony, in fact, continued to defend itself by the same means which those chieftains used to employ among themselves: that is to say, by making alliance at some times with some, and at other times with others; whether they were Irish, or degenerate English: occasionally setting aside the provisions relative to the Irish, or forgetting the statute of Kilkenny, as circumstances made it necessary.

On the other hand, there were reasons why the English colony did not extend their acquisitions, nor avail themselves of certain advantages which they might have perhaps possessed to that effect.

In the first place, they received no assistance from England, whose government was either engaged in continental and Scottish expeditions, or was distracted at home by rebellious insurrections, and civil wars.

In the second place, the English colonists began in time to quarrel among themselves, in their own district. In the same manner as a division had in former years been effected between English subjects and the degenerate English, so a division now took place in the colony, between the English subjects of race or blood, and English subjects of birth, that is, those who were born in England, and had lately emigrated, or rather immigrated, into Ireland. Their dissensions went even so far, that two opposite parliaments were more than once to be seen sitting in different places, anathematizing each other; and promulgating opposite contradictory laws, to be observed by English subjects in Ireland. It may be observed that some of the English subjects of blood were possessed of considerable independent districts out of the limit of the pale, which enabled them to oppose by main force the government of the colony, and even sometimes to attempt to call distinct conventions or parliaments. The most considerable among them were the Earls of Ormond and of Desmond.

* When a man had been killed, and the accused party pleaded that the man was an Irishman, the case was brought to the issue whether the man killed was of Irish, or English race. Sir John Davies has quoted two curious Latin records. By the first it appears that one Williams, who had killed one Roger, obtained his quietus, on proving that this Roger, notwithstanding the English name he had assumed, belonged to the Irish Sept, or tribe, surnamed O'Hederiscals. The other record gives the instance of one Laurens, who was sentenced to be hanged, for killing one Galfred Dovedal, who proved, on the trial, to be of English race.—See Davies, p. 111, 112.

The inhabitants of Ireland had therefore, in process of time, become to be divided into four different classes :

I. The Irish.

II. The degenerate English.

III. The English subjects of blood, some of them, as hath been above observed, possessed of considerable independent territories ; but receiving summons from the lords deputies to attend the parliaments, and attending them occasionally, that is, when it suited them. This attendance in parliament was the main difference between those lords, and the degenerate English chieftains, to whom no summonses used to be sent, and who would receive none.

IV. The English of birth, who chiefly composed the government of the colony, and were assisted and countenanced by the English government.

Such was the situation of affairs in Ireland at the accession of king Henry VIII. (A. D. 1509.) At the time of this Prince the pale consisted of no more than four counties. Though Munster had been, in former days, nominally divided into counties, the people, to use Sir John Davies's expressions, had become so degenerate, that no Justice of Assize durst execute his commission among them. The answer of MacGuire, Chief of Fermanagh, to the Lord Deputy, who was proposing to him to accept a Sheriff in his district, has been recorded : " Your Sheriff shall be welcome to me ; but let me know the price of his head (his Eric), in order that if my people cut it off, I may fine them accordingly."

Henry VIII. did indeed assume the title of king of Ireland, instead of Lord ; which was the former style, and had caused certain districts without the pale, to be divided into counties. But this division was no more than nominal. The Blackrent, that annual tribute which has been above mentioned, continued during that prince's reign to be exacted from the inhabitants of the borders of the pale, by the surrounding chieftains. The native Irish Chiefs, even then, continued to consider themselves as being so independent, that they made express treaties of peace with the King and his Lieutenant : Treaties of alliance were more than once made with them, for making war on the turbulent lords of English race. One of the chieftains, named Mac-Gillpatrick, and Chief of Ossory, (in the neighbourhood of Wexford) conceiving himself on a certain occasion to have been aggrieved by the Earl of Ormond, then Lord Deputy, sent a declaration of war to Henry VIII. if he did not punish him : Which declaration, the ambassador whom the Irish chieftain had made choice of, delivered in good latin to the King, as he was coming from chapel.

As to the degree of obedience paid to the government by the lords and great subjects of English blood, it may be guessed not to have been very great, from the nature of the covenant entered into by the Earl of Desmond with Henry VIII. in the thirty-second year of the reign of that Prince ; which was, that he would suffer the law of England to be executed in his country, and would permit the subsidies granted by the parliament (of Ireland) to be levied on his tenants and followers.

Such was the state of Ireland during the reign of king Henry VIII. and even during the reigns of king Edward VI. of queen Mary, and the greater part of the reign of queen Elizabeth.

The only way to form a true idea of the dominions of the English crown here is by considering the English colony that had been settled on the island, in the sameligh as the settlements, or colonies, formed by Europeans in remoter parts of the world*.

Nº XVI.

3. Q

* The Irish, from their peculiar customs, their appearance and dress, were, in regard to the English, a foreign, we might almost say, a remote nation. When the chieftain O'Neal went upon his visit and interview with queen Elizabeth, (A. D. 1562.) he was accompanied, and continued to be

The method of forcing their laws and customs upon conquered nations, was never adopted but by such conquerors as aimed at destruction, and were seeking pretences for it. The Normans suffered the common law of England to subsist, after their conquest, in those cases which did not affect their power and government. The reluctance shewn by the English lords against having the laws of their country altered in a case in which not one of them perhaps was personally concerned, is well known.—*Nolumus leges Angliæ mutare*, was their unanimous declaration. It may be added that the attachment of the Irish to their laws was grounded upon more serious reasons than mere prepossession.—They did not seem to have annexed to the right of property, particularly in regard to land, the same ideas as the English. The laws of England, especially concerning descent, were perhaps the strangest laws, and the most repugnant to their manner of living, that could be proposed to them: They should not therefore have been attempted to be forced upon them precipitately. This is a point which writers have not perhaps sufficiently elucidated.

The laws and statutes passed against those English persons who adopted the Irish customs and language, and claimed the support of the Irish laws, were not more judicious. Being settled through the country, and mixed with the inhabitants, they could not avoid complying with the customs of those men whose countenance and assistance it behoved them to obtain, and obeying those laws and governments, to which they must resort for immediate protection. Even in the precinct of the pale, the Irish language had a constant tendency to become prevalent; and ordinances were frequently made for restraining the use of it. Coercion was added, as usual, to enforce them, and Sir John Davies went so far as to recommend the *mastering the Irish by the sword, and of breaking them by warre, in order to make them capable of obedience and good seeds*.

The kings of England would have acted with more justice, more glory, as well as more advantage to themselves, if they had been satisfied with the quality of arbitrators between these Irish Rulers or Chiefs; an office to the discharging of which a small force would have been competent, considering the equal manner in which their strength and resources were balanced among themselves. Instead of this, adventurers were poured into Ireland, who, partly by their avidity, and partly by their ignorant laws, rendered pacification impossible.

The violent measures that had been pursued in the reign of King Edward VI. in order to establish the Protestant religion and liturgy in Ireland, had given rise to a considerable degree of disaffection among all subjects in the country: the jealousy had extended to the Irish tribes; and a spirit of combination and general opposition to the English government was beginning to take place through the island, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

This disposition of people's minds offered a favourable opportunity to Philip II. King of Spain, for promoting his hostile designs against England. Partial invasions of Ireland were attempted by the Spanish government several years before the sending out of their invincible armada. A Spanish colony, we may even observe, was supported from remote times, on the south-west part of the Irish coast.

Spain, of all foreign countries, is the most favourably situated for an intercourse with Ireland. The Spanish coast stretches so far out into the Atlantic Ocean, as to lie to the westward of most of the Irish harbours. Westerly winds, which mostly prevail there, are favourable for coming from Cape Finisterre to Cork, Waterford, &c. The northern Spanish shore in fact lies both east and west of the Irish coast; and Spain is better situated for constant communication with Ireland, than France, or perhaps than any English harbour within the British Channel. An army of several thousand Spaniards were actually

attended in England, by a guard of Gallowglases, armed with the battle-axe, after the manner of their country, their heads bare, their hair flowing on their shoulders, and their linen vests with large sleeves, dyed with saffron. He was received and treated as an independent Chief.

landed, attended by a pope's nuntio, who got possession of Kinsale. And England thus found herself in danger of being beset, on east and west, by the power of Spain, so formidable in those days, and of lying in the middle between the land forces of the Spaniards, then centred in the Netherlands, and their naval strength and armaments, stationed in the harbours of Ireland.

These considerations determined the English government to make uncommon efforts to secure the possession of Ireland. Very considerable subsidies were voted by parliament for that purpose; and an army of twenty thousand men, well provided, was sent, which, assisted by the advantages and power already possessed by the government in the country, by successive reinforcements from England, and by other favourable circumstances, effected a complete reduction of all the different lords and chiefs who till then had ruled in the island, after a war, that lasted about seven years.

However, Queen Elizabeth did not live to see Ireland entirely reduced. For, the final capitulation with the great chieftain O'Neal, was not signed till a few days after her death.

James I. is, therefore, to be named as the first English sovereign who possessed the dominion of Ireland.

At this æra, all violent opposition to the authority of the English government and crown, was put an end to. The spirit of Irish resistance was braided, to use the expressions of Sir John Davies, as it were in a mortar, with the sword, famine, and pestilence, altogether. Both the degenerate English and the native Irish were alike overcome.

At the same time the power of the judges and of the English government was extensively fixed, the Irish laws and customs were abolished, and the English laws established in all cases without exception, through the whole island.

As a further step for the settling of Ireland, numerous colonies were sent from Great Britain to occupy the lands which had been taken from those tribes and chieftains who had been more particularly engaged in the war to defend their rights, liberties and laws.

The English government being now universally and indisputably established by force of arms, there was a probability that the enmities of former parties would be in time forgotten,—that those inhabitants who had been compelled to adopt the English laws and customs, would gradually accommodate themselves to them, and that a lasting peace might prevail in Ireland. But events had unfortunately taken place within the last fifty or sixty years, that were soon to disturb this peace, and give rise to animosities and contests as obstinate and bloody as those which had been lately terminated. It is here meant to speak of the religious dissensions caused by the introduction of the reformation into Ireland.

The first attempt to introduce the reformation into Ireland, was in the reign of King Edward VI. In his reign orders were sent for using the English liturgy in all the churches of the colony, that is, of those districts wherein the authority of the English government was acknowledged. Directions were also given for removing, selling, or destroying, the ornaments, &c. of the churches and other places devoted to religion; and the soldiers who composed the garrisons stationed in Ireland, were employed for effecting these removals and destructions, which they performed with their usual zeal and alacrity in executing commands of this kind. In the mean time, Sir Anthony St. Leger, the Lord Deputy, was recalled, on account of his not being sufficiently assiduous in promoting the work of the reformation.

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* The power of the law and of the judges, did not become, however, quite so completely established in Ireland, at the beginning of the reign of James I. as Sir John Davies has described it. Several insurrections took place in this reign, which were raised by Irish chieftains exasperated at the total overthrow of their laws and customs: though they were quelled without any great difficulty, as their power and resources had been so broken by the late war.

In the reign of Queen Mary, the proceedings were reversed. The Latin liturgy was reinstated in the churches, and their ornaments were restored. Protestants were, nevertheless, allowed to live sufficiently unmolested: they were not numerous enough in Ireland, to make persecution a profitable business.

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, a fresh reverse took place; and the churches were again denuded of their ornaments.

James I. pursued the same business of reformation: but as the king's power in Ireland was now so far increased beyond what it had formerly been, so, the measures for altering the religion of the country were attended with more important effects. The directions concerning the reformation, sent by the preceding sovereigns, had only been enforced in the districts and churches within the pale: the orders sent by the council of James I. now extended to the whole island.

The principal measures that were adopted at the time of that prince, for raising the Protestant, on the ruins of the Catholic, religion, in Ireland were the following:

In the first place, the colony that was sent from Great Britain, to settle on those lands which had been seized by the crown, as hath been above mentioned, was formed of Protestants; and a great many of them Presbyterians. A small colony, formed on the same principle, had also been sent in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, to settle on the lands that were taken from the Earl of Desmond, a rebellious great lord and subject of blood, when he was subdued and attainted with an hundred and forty of his adherents, some years before the great war against the native Irish. The Protestant party by those means acquired that kind of strength, and weight, which results from considerable numbers. For it is to be observed that there were scarcely any Protestants among the old English inhabitants of Ireland; and there were still fewer (if any) among the native Irish: the reformation had made no progress whatever in Ireland.

In the second place, the majority in the Irish parliament was allotted to the Protestant party, through the manner in which the parliament was now composed, and, in which the right of election was conferred on new erected counties, corporations and boroughs.

There had been no parliament held in Ireland for twenty-seven years before the time we are speaking of, which was the eighth year of the reign of King James I. The Protestants were so few in Ireland, in Queen Elizabeth's time, that the government of the colony could not venture upon calling a parliament: there was too little probability of getting a majority on the Protestant side, even with the power possessed by the crown of erecting new counties, corporations and boroughs: this had been the cause of the long intermission of parliaments that has been above mentioned. The council of James I. in the eighth year of his reign, [1611,] had a more advantageous scope, now that the island was universally subdued, and a numerous colony of Protestant settlers had been introduced, who were in possession of extensive tracts of land. New boroughs were erected in those quarters occupied by the new settlers. Even then the government found themselves, at first, mistaken in their reckoning, through the remarkable ardor with which the opposite, or Catholic, party exerted themselves, especially in the elections for counties: elections were lost where there was thought to be little danger of it; and even privy-counsellors excluded. The disappointment was made up by speedily erecting fresh corporations, or boroughs, and conferring upon them the right of electing members. Hence the complaints made afterward by the Catholic party, that several new corporations which had sent members, had been erected, in order to the sending of precepts to them for elections, after the first issuing of the writs for calling the parliament.

By this exertion of all their resources, the government in Ireland obtained a majority in the Lower House. On the first day of meeting, the members of the Catholic party were found to be 101; and those in the Protestant interest were 125. The Catholic party being both greatly surprised and disappointed at finding themselves the minor number, at first refused to recognize those new brethren that had been sent them by the new erected corpora-

tions: a scuffle even took place in the chairing of a speaker; each party putting forth a different person. But as the place of the meeting was in the castle, as they were surrounded by a Protestant garrison, and all attendants had been dismissed, as well as swords left at the gate, the Catholic party were fain to submit. In the House of Lords, there were four earls, five viscounts, and sixteen barons: in all twenty-five: to them were added twenty-five Protestant bishops and archbishops.

In order to complete the superiority of the Protestant party, the penal statutes that had been passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth were put in force. By virtue of these statutes, no man who refused to take the oath of supremacy, could be invested with an office in a corporation, or be a justice of the peace, or a magistrate. He was not to be a privy-counsellor, nor to be preferred to any post in the government. If a lawyer, he was not to be admitted to plead at the bar, or to fill the office of judge. All the higher dignities of the church, together with church livings, and church emoluments, were allotted to the Protestant clergy. A weekly fine was also to be laid upon every person who should neglect to attend the church service.

By means of these measures and ordinances, the Protestant became completely established, to the exclusion of the Catholic Religion. And at that period arose those formidable party distinctions, of Catholics, and Protestants, into which the inhabitants of Ireland have since been divided.

The Protestant party was, on the one hand, formed by those colonies that had, of late years, been settled in Ireland. They had on their side the strength of the colonial government, which was formed only of themselves, and the majority of the parliament of the island.

On the other hand, the Catholic party was formed of the whole mass of the inhabitants of Ireland, previous to the settling of the new colonies: for, as hath been already observed, there were no protestants in Ireland before that time.

At the period we are speaking of, the old distinctions of native Irish, degenerate English, English of blood, and English of the Pale, were forgotten, and lost in the general denomination of Catholics. An union was now formed between the Irish chieftains and tribes, who, after losing their lands and their laws, were now to lose their religion, and the whole of the old English colony, whose Lords and men of influence were now to be deprived of their consequence, whose Lawyers and Priests were thrown out of employment, while the numerous commonalty had their churches taken from them, and were insulted by penalties for not conforming to the religious rites of their opponents. All were now united together under the common banner of the Catholic Faith, and turned their eyes towards the Protestant party, as a common aggressor and an enemy.

The resources of the Protestant party for maintaining their ground in the midst of so formidable a confederacy, could not be in their number; for, though considerable in itself, it bore no proportion to those of their Catholic opponents. And the advantage they possessed of forming the colonial government, and of having a majority in the parliament, was only a strength of an artificial kind, which, without farther support, could not subsist long. Their real effectual resources were to be in their moderation, and in the support of the English government. This moderation was not exercised, as appears by the foregoing state to which the Catholics had been reduced—and the English government was at this period so distracted, by the contest between the king and parliament, that little attention was paid to the preservation of order, or the steady and equal distribution of impartial justice in Ireland. Irritated by a combination of causes, and favoured by the circumstances of the time, a general insurrection was planned, and carried into execution in the close of the year 1641. An event productive of the most baneful and lasting consequences to its peace, its union, and its prosperity. This civil war was begun by the native Irish, on the night of the 22d October; and they were joined soon after by the old English colony, the Lords of blood, very few excepted, and the Catholic inhabi-

tants of the Pale: the junction had been at first postponed by the miscarriage of the attempt upon Dublin.

The Catholic party in Ireland were in reality stretching a hand to Charles I. But this Prince was not able to see this. While under the pressure of the war waged against him by the English parliament and his Scottish subjects, he continued for years to consider the Irish and their English confederates as his enemies, and to give directions accordingly. When he had thoughts, at length, of employing their assistance in the year 1645, it was become too late.

The Irish insurgents had on their first onset, as hath been above mentioned, failed of seizing the city and castle of Dublin. Armies of Scots had crossed the straits between their country and the north coast of Ireland. Both the loyalists, and the parliamentary party in the island, continued for a long time to be united against them and their confederates of English race. Assistance was sent by the English parliament, as soon as they were able to spare it. Cromwell, with his generals, in time followed; and an army of above thirty thousand foot, and fifteen thousand horse, was transported or formed in Ireland, by which an end was put to the war in the year 1652.

The limits of this sketch of Irish history do not admit of our entering into a detail of the scenes of blood exhibited in this unhappy period of eleven years.—Nor indeed would it afford any satisfaction to the benevolent mind, to pursue the investigation of truth through the various contradictory, and sometimes exaggerated, accounts of transactions, at which the feelings revolt, and the remembrance had better be obliterated.

“Many authors have contributed to deceive the public in respect to this affair. But of all who have written on the subject, the accounts of Sir John Temple are the most partial, the most exaggerated, and the most absurd. On reflection, he was not himself pleased with the performance, for he would not suffer it to pass through a second edition.

“The consequence of magnifying and painting in strong colours the circumstances of this unhappy affair, has been, to alienate the affections of Protestants from their Roman Catholic brethren. In consequence of this, deep impressions to the disadvantage, not merely of the guilty, to which they should have been entirely confined, but of the whole sect, have been transmitted from generation to generation. To stigmatize indiscriminately, as too many have done, the natives of Ireland, for the crimes of individuals, in which they did not participate, which they did not approve, nay which many of them laboured to prevent, is an act of great injustice to men, who have ever been distinguished for warm hearts and benevolent affections.

“For the sake of government, whose accumulated injuries were the cause; for the honour of human nature; for the sake of those sweet propensities of the heart, which should bind by the ties of mutual good will, fellow citizens and fellow subjects, though distinguished by different religious opinions, the massacre of sixteen hundred and forty-one should be buried in everlasting oblivion.”

New colonies were transported into Ireland, in order to occupy those lands which were either taken from the Catholic insurgents, or had become vacant by the destructive effect of the war, and the calamities that attended it. All those native Irish who were existing, in different parts of the island, at the time of the settlement made by Cromwell, were commanded to retire into the province of Connaught, which had become desolate, and almost destitute of inhabitants. They were obliged to give up their lands and titles to the conquerors; and the new lands assigned to each of them were proportioned to the extent of those they surrendered. A certain day was also fixed for them to retire, upon the penalty of death. The whole measure was an event of much the same kind as the expulsion of the Moors out of Spain. With this difference, however, that the nation of the Moors had, about eight centuries before, been invaders of Spain, and were now driven out of

it to a remote country; whereas, the native Irish had been time immemorial in possession of their island, and had now about one fifth part of it allotted to them.

This injunction laid on the old native Irish, to keep within the limits assigned to them, continued to be very strictly enforced till the restoration; that is, during eight years. At that period, some among them recovered their lands, on refunding the expences of those adventurers who were in possession of them: and a free intercourse was re-established between them and the rest of the island.

At the period we are speaking of, the interest and power of the old native Irish, as a distinct class of inhabitants, was entirely broken; their numbers being from that time much exceeded by those of the old and new inhabitants of British race.

"It is painful to every feeling of humanity, to view the state of this country from the year sixteen hundred and forty-one to the restoration. During the whole of that period, the mind is not relieved by the intervention of one gleam of public happiness. The dreadful effects of ambition, of a violent party spirit, and of religious bigotry, aggravated by the calamities of civil war, fill up the whole of the scene. Of these, ambition, or a thirst of lawless domination, was the original source of all our miseries. This provoked the natives to arms. The history of mankind does not produce an instance, of a government founded in equity, and administered by the principles of justice, being disturbed by a conspiracy of the subjects, similar to the Irish insurrection. The ambition of Charles, which kindled the flame of contention betwixt him and the parliament, extended to this country, multiplied the distractions of the several parties, and aggravated our miseries."

The revolution of the year 1689, in England, became the cause of a second civil war in Ireland. It is not quite improbable, that the remarkable willingness of James II. to withdraw from England, was owing to a settled design he entertained of trying his fortune in that island. The step taken by Charles I. of trusting himself, in his distress, to a Scottish army, instead of applying to the Irish, while it was yet time, had very possibly continued to be looked upon in his family, as one of the worst faults he had committed.

In the beginning of March, 1689, that is, about two months after he had left England, James II. sailed from Brest with seventeen ships of war, and landed at Kinsale on the twelfth.

He found the legal government of the country on his side. By altering the charters of the corporations, in the beginning of his reign, a majority had been procured in the parliament to the Catholic party. The Earl of Tyrconnel, who was Lord Deputy, had already taken arms in his favour, and met him at Cork, where he delivered up his authority to him.

James II. soon found himself at the head of forty thousand soldiers; and with these forces he marched, first to Dublin, then to the north of the island, where the strength of the Protestant interest lay. On receiving the news of the revolution in England, the Irish Protestants had proclaimed William and Mary. They were afterwards assisted by an army from England, which sailed from Chester in August 1689, under the command of Duke Schomberg; and King William followed, about eight months after (in June, 1690) with considerable reinforcements.

James II. was defeated on the banks of the Boyne. He soon after withdrew in a frigate belonging to the King of France, resigning Ireland to his competitor, after a stay of about sixteen months since his landing at Kinsale. Considering the almost sure prospect of success he had during the first six months, his miscarriage must have been in great part owing to his want of abilities: but it may be added, had he possessed abilities and judgment, he never would have had any occasion to command an army in Ireland.

The war was continued about a twelvemonth longer, between the Generals whom King William had left to supply his place, and the French and Irish forces. At length,

the taking of Limerick put an end to the war. The celebrated capitulation, otherwise called the Articles of Limerick, was signed on the third of October, 1691. This capitulation was meant to form the law by which the rights left to Roman Catholics, in Ireland, were in future to be decided, and the charter by which those rights were to be limited, and at the same time securely established.

The principal articles were, That the Roman Catholics should exercise their religion in the same manner as they did in the reign of Charles II.: that they should enjoy the common privileges of subjects, being bound to take the oath of allegiance to the King when required: and that they should have a right to have arms about their persons, or in their houses, like other subjects.

These articles, or conditions, of Limerick, continued to be observed in King William's reign; and this Prince constantly resisted the endeavours of the prevailing party in Ireland, for having them repealed. Indeed, the fixed inclination of that Prince for religious toleration, does honour to his memory, and forms the greatest part of his character as a King.

The line of conduct, in regard to Roman Catholics in Ireland, we have above mentioned, ceased to be pursued in the reign of Queen Anne. Several acts of the Irish parliament were passed, by which the Conditions of Limerick were gradually violated. And at length the laws of *Discovery* were enacted, by which the triumph of the Protestant over the Catholic party was finally completed, after one hundred and ten years struggle.

By these laws, the Roman Catholics were absolutely disarmed. They could not purchase land. If one son did abjure the Catholic religion, he inherited the whole estate, though he was the youngest. If he made such abjuration, and turned *Discoverer*, during the lifetime of his father, he took possession of the estate; his father remaining a pensioner to him. If a Catholic had a horse in his possession, worth fifty, or an hundred pounds, or more, a Protestant might take the same from him, upon paying him down five pounds. If the rent paid by any Catholic was less than two-thirds of the full improved value, whoever discovered, or turned informer, took the benefit of the lease, &c. &c. Various restrictions were laid on their education at home, and penalties on their obtaining it abroad.

In the reign of King William, several acts were passed by the English parliament, in which Ireland was bound. One was entitled *An Act for the relief of the Protestant Irish Clergy*: it repealed the act passed by the Irish parliament in the reign of Charles II. for *disabling spiritual persons from holding benefices in England and Ireland at the same time*: it was meant to enable those persons of the Irish Clergy who were driven out of their country by the war in 1682, to be admitted to benefices in England. Another English act prohibited all trade with France, both from England and Ireland. Another declared all the acts of parliament held at Dublin by James II. to be void, without the present Irish legislature being consulted. And a fourth act was, for *abrogating the oath of supremacy in Ireland, and appointing other oaths*.

In the following year, the political tendency of the above mentioned English acts, and the national dependence on England which they seemed to evince, began to engage very seriously the public attention in Ireland. This attention, as well as the general dissatisfaction, gradually increased. And at length, in the year 1698, the famous Pamphlet written by Mr. Molynieux, was published, which is entitled, *The Case of Ireland being bound by acts of parliament, in England, stated*. This Pamphlet, together with the high degree of notice that was taken of it by the English House of Commons, may be considered as having been the public opening of the controversy and the political contention between England and Ireland, since the beginning of this century.

It is observed, that there was, besides Mr. Molynieux's publication, another fact of a serious nature, though not very generally known at first to the public, which caused the interference of the English House of Commons. The Irish parliament, dissatisfied with the above recited acts that had been passed in England, since the beginning of the King's

reign, had transmitted to the King in council for his Majesty's assent, the heads of a bill, which, under colour of giving a farther sanction to those acts, was meant as a kind of precedent, or declaration, for excluding afterwards the authority of the English parliament out of Ireland. The opportunity of the appearance of Mr. Molyneux's publication was taken; a committee of the House of Commons was appointed on the 21st of May 1698, to enquire into the book; and, upon the report of the committee, the House "unanimously resolved;

' June 22, That the said book was of a dangerous consequence to the crown and people of England, by denying the authority of the king and parliament of England to bind the kingdom and people of Ireland, and the subordination that Ireland has, and ought to have, upon England, as being united and annexed to the imperial crown of this realm. And that, occasion and encouragement to forming the dangerous positions contained in the said book, had been given by a bill entitled an act for the better security of his majesty's person and government, transmitted under the Great Seal of Ireland; whereby an act of parliament made in England was pretended to be re-enacted, alterations therein made, and divers things enacted also, pretending to oblige the courts of justice, and Great Seal, of England, by the authority of an Irish parliament.'

The House then, in a body, presented an address to the King, in which they enlarged both on the book and its pernicious assertions, and on the dangerous tendency of the proceedings of the Irish parliament. They concluded with 'assuring his Majesty of their ready concurrence and assistance, in a parliamentary way, to preserve and maintain the dependence and subordination of Ireland to the imperial crown of this realm.' The answer of his Majesty to this address, was, 'that he would take care, that, what was complained of, might be prevented and redressed as the Commons desired.'

Thus was the political war between the two countries ushered in,—and the gauntlet thrown by one party, bravely taken up by the other.

In the year 1719, another public important case of controversy occurred. It was the English House of Lords, who interfered this time. A cause relative to an estate was tried before the Court of Exchequer in Ireland, who gave a decree in favour of Maurice Annesly against Hester Sherlock. The House of Lords in Ireland was appealed to: they reversed the decree; and Hester Sherlock was put in possession of the estate. Maurice Annesly applied to the House of Lords in England, for relief. The House, proceeding upon the principle that the Peers of Ireland possessed no power of jurisdiction, confirmed the decree; and an order was sent to the Barons of the Exchequer in Ireland, to cause the possession of the estates to be restored to Maurice Annesly; which order they were able, after some time, to effect. Hester Sherlock petitioned the House of Peers in Ireland: they ordered the three Barons of Exchequer, Jeffrey Gilbert, John Pilkington, and Sir John St. Leger, into custody; and sent a representation of the case to the King. This representation was laid before the English House of Peers: who, after addreſſing the King, to desire that he would be pleased to confer some marks of his royal favour on the Barons of the Exchequer, framed a bill, of which the following is an abstract:

'Whereas attempts have been lately made to shake off the subjection of Ireland unto the imperial crown of this realm: And whereas the House of Lords in Ireland have of late assumed, against law, a power to examine and amend the judgments of the courts of justice in Ireland: Therefore, be it enacted, that the said kingdom of Ireland is subordinate unto, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain; and that the King's Majesty, by and with the consent of the Lords and Commons of Great Britain, has full power and authority to make laws and statutes to bind the people and the kingdom of Ireland. And be it farther enacted, that the House of Lords of Ireland have not any jurisdiction, to judge of, affirm, or reverse, any judgment or decree given in any court within the said kingdom.'—The bill having met with the concurrence of the Com-

mons, and received the King's assent, became an act of parliament; so that the claim laid by the British House of Peers, to jurisdiction over the kingdom of Ireland was, in case of future opposition, to be backed by the whole power of Great Britain.

But soon after, a circumstance occurred, too remarkable not to be noticed, and it may serve as an example to present times and to posterity, that the united, determined and persevering voice of a people, must be ultimately crowned with success. This was the well-known affair of Wood's halfpence, which happened in the year 1723, and in which Dean Swift erected himself, with such zeal, as effectually to raise all ranks of people in this kingdom in one general opposition. This seems to have been the first occasion on which a very general spirit of union and opposition was manifested in Ireland against the British government. The clamour that was raised at that period was apparently about the badness of Wood's halfpence; but it is evident the dispute was in reality a question of rights and independence.

The affair was as follows. A scarcity of copper coin prevailed in Ireland. The government in London, in order to remedy it, granted to Mr. Wood a patent for coining halfpence and farthings for that kingdom: the patent was to last fourteen years; and copper money was to be coined, pursuant to the patent, to the amount of 103,000*l*. A considerable quantity of such copper coin was accordingly coined in England, and sent to Ireland. It did not meet with a favourable reception. It was alleged that its real value was greatly inferior to what it was made to pass for. The parliament of Ireland addressed the crown against the measure of sending the coin; and during their following biennial recess great complaints continued to be made both by individuals and by public corporations.

The question continued to agitate the public mind, and to excite a very general ferment. It was Wood *versus* Ireland; and Ireland *versus* Wood. The baseness of the halfpence was the public topic; but the manner of introducing, and the mode that had been adopted of supplying the kingdom with them, were in fact the real cause of the contention. In the mean time the universal zeal against the halfpence continued to increase. Most towns addressed against them and their ruinous tendency. And a declaration was signed by the country gentlemen, forbidding their tenants to receive Wood's base copper coin.

At length the Irish politicians began to venture out of those cautious limits which they had hitherto prescribed to themselves. Questions relative to the King's prerogative, and to the subordination of the kingdom of Ireland, were publicly discussed. The British government now began to be out of temper; or rather they had been so a long while before, finding that the patent they had granted, and endeavoured to support, was become useless, through the settled determination of all ranks of people against the halfpence. They took the opportunity of certain writings lately published, to shew their resentment. They resolved upon the prosecution of the authors; and the new Lord Lieutenant, the Lord Carteret, who still continued in England, was ordered to repair to the place of his government. Immediately after his arrival, a proclamation was issued, offering a reward of three hundred pounds for discovering the author of a pamphlet, intitled the Drapier's Fourth Letter, in which the question of the dependency of the kingdom of Ireland had been examined with some unusual degree of freedom. The author was generally understood to be Dean Swift; but there could be no proof against him. The manuscript copy which was found in the Printer's house, was in a counterfeit hand: And it had been brought, sealed up in a paper, by an obscure messenger, to whom it had been delivered one evening through a window by an unknown person. In defect of the author, the Printer and his Wife were imprisoned; and a bill of indictment was prepared against the Printer.—The Grand Jury would not find the bill. The Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench discharged them in a passion. A second Grand Jury was empanelled. But here matters took a turn which the British government, and the officers of the crown in Ireland, had not expected. The Grand Jury, instead of finding the bill against the Printer, made the following presentment.

"Whereas several great quantities of base metal coined, commonly called Wood's halfpence, have been brought into the port of Dublin, and lodged in several houses of this city, with an intention to make the same pass among his Majesty's subjects of this kingdom; we the Grand-Jury of the county of the city of Dublin do present all such persons as have attempted, or shall attempt, to impose the said halfpence upon us. And we do, with gratitude, acknowledge the services of all such patriots as have been zealous in detecting the fraudulent imposition of the said Wood, and preventing the passing of his base coin." (28 Nov. 1724.)

Matters were thus brought to a kind of a serious situation. To continue to support the patent, and take farther steps from Great-Britain for enforcing the circulation of the halfpence, were now dangerous measures. Some steps of that kind had already been taken by means of the report of the British privy council. The patent was declared in the report to be *legal and obligatory, and a just and reasonable exercise of his Majesty's royal prerogative*: all the officers and judges in the kingdom were also commanded to *countenance and assist* the patent. To endeavour now to pursue the same plan any further, was not unlikely to be attended with some eventful catastrophe. The sending a few more barrels of halfpence to Cork, or Dublin, might have been followed by events of the very same nature as those by which the arrival of the tea at Boston was. Matters stood in Ireland, at the period we are speaking of, in a situation very similar to that in which they were in America, in the year 1773.

Whether the British ministers had final compulsive measures in contemplation, is not clear. One might imagine so, from certain expressions in one of Archbishop's Boulter's Letters, in which he says, that in his conversations with the men of best sense and estates in Ireland, he had represented to them, among other considerations, that *the seditious and clamorous behaviour of many must rather tend to provoke his Majesty and his ministry to support the patent*.

The British ministers were wiser than to proceed too far in favour of William Wood's halfpence. They considered the great danger that might follow from a civil commotion being raised so near England, when a new family had been but lately promoted to the throne, and only a few years had elapsed since a pretender's army had made its appearance both in Scotland and in England, and prudently yielding to necessity, they therefore cancelled Wood's patent.

At this time the complaints of the people on account of other subjects, were also loud, of which Dean Swift takes particular notice in his *Short View of the State of Ireland*; he compares this kingdom, in which a few placemen from England enjoyed plentiful salaries, to an hospital, in which all the household officers grow rich, while the poor, for whose sake it was built, are almost starving for want of food and raiment.

In the years 1751 and 1753, another remarkable contest took place. The difference was this time with the crown. The subject was an unappropriated sum of money, remaining in the Irish treasury, after the expences of government were paid. Whose property was that money? who was to dispose of it—the crown, or the Irish parliament? That was the question.

The crown looked upon the money as being its property: and as it was not then wanted, it being time of peace, the Duke of Dorset, then Lord Lieutenant, acquainted the House of Commons, that he was commanded by his Majesty to inform them, that his Majesty would consent that the money remaining in the treasury should be applied to the discharge of their national debt. The House passed a bill accordingly; but avoided saying any thing about the King's previous declaration. The bill was transmitted to England, and was returned, that is, assented to, with the additional mention however, of the King's preparatory leave and consent: the addition was submitted to, this time, and the bill accepted in the Irish Parliament.

The question continued nevertheless to be warmly discussed among the politicians, till the following session, that is, during two years: it was called the question about the previous consent: it was in reality about the property of the money remaining as a surplus, in the treasury. When the parliament again met, in the year 1752, the Lord Lieutenant made the same declaration he had made two years before. The Commons, in appropriating the new surplus money, again avoided taking notice of the king's previous licence: the mention of it was, as formerly, added by the English privy council. The Irish commons this time rejected the bill. The crown then with a strong hand asserted its claim to the surplus money, and the king, by his letter, took it out of the treasury.

Though the parliament of Ireland acquiesced under the claims and declarations of Great-Britain, still such acquiescence was not of a voluntary kind. Those measures upon which they had themselves ventured, and their own declarations, were proofs of their discontent, and ought to be considered as protests and standing claims, resisting those of the British parliament.

The generality of the people also began in their turn to view things in a different light, and to be also dissatisfied with the claims asserted by the British parliament. The consequence of which claims was to reduce their own national parliament to the condition of a subject legislature, and themselves to the situation of a dependent kingdom, and a subordinate nation.

In the administration of Lord Townshend, it became the policy of the times to exalt the influence of the great body of the people by limiting the duration of parliaments. This was a measure peculiarly necessary in Ireland, where the democratic spirit of the constitution was scarcely known or respected, and an aristocratic power had reigned with uncontrolled dominion.

The popularity of Dr. Lucas, which had been long highly estimated, was further increased by his being the mover of the bill for this purpose, in the year 1768. Before that period parliaments used to be continued by prorogations during a whole reign: the same members of course preserving their places. The privy council of Ireland consented to transmit the bill to England: by which the duration of parliaments was to be limited to seven years. The bill was returned with the addition of one year, and our parliaments from that period began to be biennial.

In consequence of passing this bill into a law, the parliament was dissolved, and a new one met in the following year. In this session a money bill which did not originate with the commons was presented to the house; this measure they had ever strenuously opposed, and now rejected with equal spirit. This gave much offence to administration, and the parliament was abruptly prorogued to 1771 by Lord Townshend, from which much injury arose to the nation, as little of the public business had been done.

About this period, the peace of the north of Ireland was for some time disturbed by a numerous body of the lower classes of people denominated steel-boys, who, feeling themselves much aggrieved by the mode adopted by an absentee landlord for settling his estate, (which was very considerable,) were in their distress excited to many acts of violence and outrage, for which numbers were condemned and executed. These examples, with the exertions of the military, extinguished the commotion. But the cause from whence it arose produced further effects, highly injurious to this country; as in a short time, many thousands of its inhabitants emigrated to America.

The questions of the commercial restraints of Ireland, and of the interference of the British parliament in Irish concerns, had continued to be discussed only in the speeches of politicians, or in the writings of individuals. Sir William Petty first attempted to touch, in a general manner, on those questions. Mr. Molyneux came after him: though he chose to say but very little on the subject of trade, and preferred to confine himself to the general question of constitution. Dean Swift, in his *Drapier's Letters*, entered fully into both

subjects. And, in a subsequent time, Mr. Charles Lucas debated the two questions in the writings and addresses to the people, published by him in his private capacity.

But no steps of a national and general kind were entered upon, in order to effect the removal of those laws by which the trade or constitution of Ireland were restrained. There was too small a prospect of success. It was taken too much for granted that the British legislature would defend with the utmost degree of seriousness, both those acts which they had passed, and their claim to continue to pass similar acts in future. The assumed prerogative of the crown had upon certain occasions been disputed in Ireland, in the course of this century; but acts of the whole British legislature had never been opposed.

In the year 1778, the measure of public distress arising from a combination of causes being full, united all ranks in their endeavours for procuring the removal of those restraints by which the trade of Ireland was clogged. The public discontent began to be manifested with symptoms very different from those which had attended the complaints made at any former period.

In the parliament which had met about the end of the year 1777, the disadvantages under which the trade of Ireland lay, had been remarked upon with a considerable degree of warmth. After the rise of the parliament the subject was taken up by the generality of the people, and engaged the attention of public meetings and corporations. Melancholy pictures presented themselves throughout the kingdom, of the deplorable condition of the country, of the fallen price of its lands and rents, of the ruinous state of its manufactures, and the stagnation of trade and credit. All these circumstances of public distress were now represented as proceeding from those restraints which had been laid on the trade of Ireland by the British legislature.

Many causes of national complaint existed at the time we are speaking of.—The war with the American colonies, to which a considerable quantity of linen used to be exported, caused that important market to be shut up. That general stagnation of trade and manufactures, which is the usual consequence of war and national difficulties, as experienced in Ireland.

The embargo which had in 1776 been laid upon the exportation of provisions from Ireland was also attended with destructive consequences, "it was sent as a curse, and operated as a pestilence," and excited the most general and well-founded complaints, as it was well known that it was laid to enable English provision contractors to amass princely fortunes on the ruin of thousands of people, who having no other market or resource, were forced to accept whatever price was offered for the provisions by the agents of these English contractors.

There were other considerations besides commercial ones, which concurred in rendering the complaints of the people of Ireland, concerning the restraints on their trade, so zealous and universal at the period we are mentioning, and induced them to join in common endeavours to have them repealed. These restraints had been laid by the legislature of another kingdom, by a parliament residing in a different country, and which, at the same time, claimed a right of absolute indefinite legislation over them. Being governed for their good, is the utmost that mankind in general can bear; they should not be expected to shew much patience when they find that they are governed to their detriment.

National and political considerations were blended with commercial ones, in the complaints of the people of Ireland. Those prohibitions on their trade and navigation, which had been expressed, modified, explained, or confirmed, in fifty, or sixty acts perhaps of the British legislature, were, in their opinions, but too obvious tokens of slavish dependence, and of provincial subordination on a foreign government, which often sacrificed the general interests of this kingdom to the most insignificant town in England, and not infrequently, as in the case of embargoes, for the advantage of worthless individuals, the creatures of a British minister. The parliament of that kingdom in their dealings

with Ireland had evidently availed themselves of the *right of the strongest*; they had both claimed and granted a patent to themselves of the most valuable branches of trade and manufactures at our expence, at the same time that they made the patent perpetual.

An important change had also, at that same time, taken place in the circumstances of Great Britain and her parliament.

Great Britain, after being weakened during several years by violent contentions at home, had seen her colonies revolt from her. She had been foiled in her attempt to recover her dominion over them. She continued to be involved in an expensive war in the same quarters. France and Spain had joined in the contest; and Great Britain was now engaged in the defence of her own coast.

The design which, at the present period, was pursued by the people of Ireland, of rescuing their trade from the restraints under which they lay, was no very extraordinary instance in the history of governments.

The administration here, seeing the crisis to which popular indignation was rising, represented to the British Ministers, that something must be done in order to allay the growing ferment; and the friends of this kingdom in the English parliament, feeling our situation still more sensibly, brought forward some propositions, in the session of 1775, for freeing our trade, which however ended in some trivial relaxations on our intercourse with Africa and the West-Indies. In the following session the subject was revived by Lord North, and ably supported by our Irish friends; but the trading jealousy of Manchester, Glasgow, and the other towns throughout Great Britain, rose to such height, and was so successfully employed, that the boon intended for Ireland, was reduced to the kind grant, of permission to cultivate tobacco and hemp. This was so glaring an insult over our distresses, and such an aggravation of smarting injuries, that nothing but the rooted loyalty of the people, could have restrained their bringing matters to that alternative which must have shook the unity of the empire; they saw it was only on themselves they could depend.

Freeing their trade from incumbrances, was now the universal and avowed object of the people. In order to forward the attainment of it, public agreements against the use of English manufactures were adopted, in the same manner as had been practised in America. The measure, it was thought, would serve the purpose of compulsion upon the British government; and it would also afford a conspicuous proof of the firm and unanimous determination of the people.

The resolutions and associations against the use of English manufactures were adhered to, till the repeal of the obnoxious laws of Great Britain was obtained. The public indignation was held forth to intimidate such as might be inclined to break through the general agreements; and it became more and more evident, that the repeal of all restraints on the national trade was absolutely necessary to be obtained, without exception, or loss of time. No dilatory remedies, no partial expedients, the immediate grant of a free trade alone, could retrieve the public calamities, and save the nation from impending ruin.

The country was so destitute of military force and protection at the time we mention, that the Mayor of Belfast, having transmitted a memorial to the Lord Lieutenant, requesting a body of the military for the defence of the coast, received for answer, that no assistance could be afforded him more than half a troop of dismounted horse, and half a company of invalids.

A very eloquent Agent began in consequence to make its appearance for national protection, and in favour of the trade and liberties of Ireland; an Agent, from its nature, extremely effectual for obtaining popular successes:—The VOLUNTEERS OF IRELAND.

The importance of this institution demands some attention. We shall therefore pause in our narrative, to devote a few lines to this unprecedented phenomenon in the history of antient or modern times:

VOLUNTEERS OF IRELAND.

THE page of history, which in general registers only the crimes, the follies, or the misfortunes of mankind, is sometimes illuminated with a bright passage that vindicates the human character, and lights up the enthusiasm of the reader. The VOLUNTEER ASSOCIATIONS of Ireland, in their rise and progress, their causes and consequences, compose a luminous period of this interesting nature. We are impelled to give a hasty glowing abridgment of this eventful institution, before it fades into history, and loses the lustre of life.

These associations originated in the year 1778, from the acknowledged inability of an ill-regulated government to guard the island, then threatened with invasion; and from the dictatorial necessity of self-defence, imposed on the people by such shameful dereliction on the part of their rulers. General government well administered must always supersede particular associations; but even when it becomes so weak or so worthless as to abandon the people, whom it was created to protect, there still exists in the community an imperishable principle of life, which is roused to the exertion of powers till then latent, by the mere urgency of perilous situation. It was the pressure of a calamitous war on a country, in which all the joints of the state were loosened, and government itself had become a grievance, rendered still more intolerable by the ruinous effects of an embargo in the south, and the fluctuating fortuitous demand for the staple manufacture in the north, which at length roused the public mind from a numbness that had locked up all its energy. The people, instead of railing with lazy wickedness at providence, endeavoured to help themselves. They did not tumble over the statute book to know by what law they could set themselves in array, but they acted under the law of Nature; and the storm of war that seemed to seek their ruin, was the occasion that proved them strong. Necessity made the people of Ireland take up arms, but many of the most active and noble principles of human nature kept them Volunteers. The possession of arms is indeed the prime distinction of a freeman from a slave. He who has nothing, and belongs to another, must be defended by that other, and needs no arms: but he who thinks he is his own master, or has any thing he can call his own, ought to have arms to defend himself, or otherwise he must live precariously and at discretion. Arms made Irishmen worthy of their weight, and necessity became the hardy nurse of public and private virtue till then unknown. Common danger made all ranks of men unite in a common cause; and every rank rose in self-consequence and attained greater elevation in the scale of society. Their coalescence brought men into a closer sphere of attraction. Patriotism became less a speculative sentiment, and more a principle of action; a passionate prepossession that moved within a smaller circle than the empire, but acquired force by the condensation. The artificial distinctions of rank, that, in Ireland particularly, create a great gulph between despotic dissipation and ragged wretchedness, were filled up and smoothed over for a time. It was such a time as made the higher ranks feel their dependence on the commonalty, who form the piles that support the arch, while they are but the balustrades that adorn it—by daring to defend themselves, the Volunteers added dignity and weight to the national character, and endowed their country with that value which alone can command the sacrifice of life and fortune in defending it. The public mind, like that of the individual, is elevated or degraded by situation. It shrinks if it does not swell, and becomes little by being engaged about little things. Public spirit at this trying time rose to the exigence of the occasion. Ireland had hitherto little to do, and therefore did nothing. It only suffered. Martial inclination became in reality an incentive to industry, and the plough and shuttle sped the better, while the peasant and the manufacturer wished by the sweat of their brows to purchase a manly ornament for their persons. The dignity of dress exalted them from naked nastiness to some degree of self-estimation. There is a hoard of labour which the strongest gripe of oppression is not able

to wring from the hard hands of the working part of the community, but when the heart of the public goes along with the work, comes forth spontaneous and unsolicited. The financier dries up the springs of industry and wonders that the streams do not flow. The mass of the miserable multitude is laid on the anvil, while the landlord, the merchant, the clergyman and the financier, lift up alternate and gigantic strokes to give the rigid tool its proper malleability; but the willing heart and hand supply a never-failing fund of labour; and from this fund only, was produced an army of many thousands, self-raised, self-paid, and self-supported, who neither bought or sold their courage; who disdained to have a hireling hand in their ranks; and whose only reward was, the salvation of their country and the vindication of its constitution.

They went on in a fortunate gradation of persevering virtue with regular yet rapid progress, from small and scattered companies to an union of more large and effective military bodies; collected into battalions, strengthened by cavalry, protected by artillery, and completely provided with all the customary furniture of war. They met in annual reviews; a measure which continued their attention to military duty, created uniformity in discipline, excited manly emulation, indicated the progress of public spirit, and gave the multitude that surrounded them, every sweet and every great sensation, that sympathy can yield to the heart of man. Inexperience in military service, and the necessary avocations of civil life, prevented them from displaying the scrupulous regularity and mechanical exactitude observable in those whose profession is arms; but they always manifested ardour to adopt, and alacrity to practice, all the strictness of discipline preparatory to actual service. This discipline, though clumsy in its minuter parts, at a proper distance appeared uniform, shewy and shining, and their general numbers,* though in reality great, were perhaps exaggerated by a prudent and patriotic ostentation.

The country was not only inspired with a higher genius, but displayed a better taste. There is a sublimity in the semblance of war, which swells the spirit above those petty barbarities that mingle even in our sports, in the cruelty of a cock-pit, or in the contest of running cattle, where all classes meet to contaminate each other, and all are assimilated with the manners of the mob. The genius of Ireland made a proud comparison between Lord Charlemont at a review of men, and the Duke of Rutland at a horse-race. If volunteering was only a diversion, it was the diversion of men, a sport that dignified, but did not debase them. It was better that the volunteer should look upon himself as a gentleman, than that the gentleman should shrink into savage vulgarity. When men pursue their sports with inferior animals, their feelings are brutalized, and their nature becomes unfeeling and ferocious; but the fiction, and even the reality of war, raises us as it were in rank; and martial manners often contribute to the civilization of certain national as well as personal characters. National as well as private character may be often collected from minute strokes of distinction so trivial as songs and diversions; and even the mottos † on the colours that waved over the heads of the volunteers, manifested the virtuous ambition of their hearts. In short, Ireland was now no longer a cowed and characterless country; never daring to act, from conscious insignificance, and always molding herself to the meanness of her situation; but a land, where honour, that useful proxy for republican virtue, circulated as an energetic principle of life, through all, even the lowest ranks of the community.

But still it may be said, let them shew their scars: The bloodless pageant has passed along, but where are the spoils and trophies it has left behind: We are limited to a mere index rerum, but even this may suffice for an answer. 1. The Volunteers saved their country in the time of war, and kept it in guarded quiet. If the standing army had

* Probably about 60,000.

† For example—The Irish Harp—I am new strung and will be heard—

A Cock—Arise, the day is come—UP—Expergiscimini, capecite reipublicam—Aut cum his vivendum, aut pro his moriendum—Civis et miles—Ne nous fions qu' à nous—Idem sentire, decere agere—Majores et Posteriores cogitate, &c. &c.

remained in the island, the invasion would probably have taken place : for when a mercenary force is the sole instrument of national defence, the nation must fall with it : the inhabitants surrender with the garrison. But when martial spirit was infused into the whole people, the island became encompassed as with a circle of fire. The fidelity of Irishmen to their country was rendered manifest, when France would have taken immediate advantage, had it been doubtful. From the living example of British invasion in America, she felt instinctively how great the force of resistance is, when it is rooted in the hearts of the people. There is an awe which surrounds a people, determined to maintain their freedom, as with the influence of a superior genius ; and if we may be so unfashionable as to cite antiquity, despotism will ever partake in the feelings of the great King, when he sat and saw the gloomy resolution and stern composure of those despairing Spartans, who were losing their long hair to the wind, and singing their last song for victory and death.

2. The Volunteers of Ireland promoted civil liberty in the time of peace. They did not lay down their arms when the war was over, but retained them as pledges of peace, whose blessings they could cultivate best by being always prepared for war. What is peace?—It is the stable tranquillity of undaunted freedom, fixing a firm footing on the rights of human nature, and leaning on the arms by which those rights are to be defended. The peace of servitude is worse than the war of freedom. The Volunteers kept up the internal regimen of the land, and superseded the necessity of what has been called Police : a word derived from the French, whose terms have contaminated our language, and whose customs are often copied to corrupt our constitution.

3. The Volunteers promoted religious liberty and liberality in Ireland. They associated, although differing in religious opinions, because they wished to create that union of power, and to cultivate that brotherhood of affection among all the inhabitants of the island, which is the interest as well as duty of all. They were all Irishmen. They rejoiced and they gloried in that common title which bound them together ; and by this institution, the different descriptions of religion forgot for a time the disputation of faith, and united to save the state, to do every thing that the union of their hearts and the strength of their hands could effectuate ; to render the name of *Irishman* honourable to themselves, serviceable to their beloved country, and formidable to its foes. Toleration is a term which still indicates much of the power, and somewhat of the wish, to oppress : but it is certain, that the Volunteer institution, and their liberal resolutions, have accelerated the coming of a time, which will give all Irishmen a country to boast of, liberties to enjoy, not merely by sufferance ; and a God to worship as they think best ; that *God* who, while millions of worlds are circulating with never-ceasing harmony in the immensity of his presence, looks down upon the minute creature *Man*, ever-jarring with his brother ; remaking his creator after *his own* image, and attributing to *him* the weaknesses and partialities of miserable mortality.

4. The Volunteers of Ireland promoted, perhaps created, national liberty. They appeared under the character of soldiers, without any design of relinquishing for a moment, the name or nature of citizens, but with a view of adding constitutional energy to that sacred title, by adopting a new but consistent appellation. They united the characters of citizen and soldier, that the one might animate the other ; and that the impetuosity incident to the military profession, might be tempered with the caution and circumspection of civil life. They therefore thought it their duty to address their sentiments on subjects of national concern to their countrymen, relations and friends ; and they gained that attention which was justly due to the guardians of domestic peace, and the protectors of the common weal. Their associations were recognized by the thanks of two estates of the legislature, and the acquiescence of the third ; by the additional sanction of those most learned in the laws, best read in the charters of liberty, and most accustomed to consult with the genius of the constitution. They thought, and they assembled in provincial

meetings, to assert and maintain, that Britain and Ireland were united only by being placed under one and the same head; that each realm has its imperial crown, and its distinct dominion subordinate to no legislative authority upon earth. They impelled parliament to follow up the assertion: the insidious and arbitrary claims of Britain were renounced: the legislative competency of Ireland recognized; and the vague assertions of individuals acquired at length the force and notoriety of positive and permanent law.

5. The Volunteers endeavoured to promote the internal liberty of the legislature as well as its external independence, by an adequate *reform in the representative body*; such a reform as might utterly destroy the most noxious of national nuisances: which makes bribery and corrupt influence a principal spring of government, from whence it oozes down thro' all the distinctions of rank, and all the classes of venality, till it mixes with and completely vitiates the mass of the multitude. Their endeavours were unsuccessful, but by no means inglorious. Men seldom accomplish all that they wish, and perhaps as seldom all that they can.—But the subject presses passionately for detail, and we have already protracted it beyond our purpose. It was to give a mere sketch of a splendid institution, which, amid the servility and corruption of modern times, reminds us of ancient days, and presents itself to our eyes, like a noble tho' mutilated statue discovered among the ruins of Rome.

Having given this short view of that sacred band who were the national protectors and the assertors of its rights, we return to the public proceedings.

On the 12th of October, 1779, the Parliament of Ireland met. The eyes of the public were now turned towards them, in anxious expectation of their determinations and proceedings; the spirit and the virtue of the people had even communicated themselves to the Senate, who completely adopted the views and political wishes of their constituents. The address which was voted by the Commons, to be delivered, as an answer to the speech from the throne by which the session was opened, contained the following expressions: *We beg leave to represent to your Majesty, that it is not by temporary expedients, but by a free trade alone, that this nation is now to be saved from impending ruin. The House of Lords concurred in expressing the same sentiments: We think it our duty to represent to your Majesty, that a free trade is absolutely necessary to enable this nation to support your Majesty at this important period with exertions suited to its loyalty, and preserve it from utter ruin.**

The Volunteers of Ireland also had their share in the honour of the day. They lined the streets which communicate from the Parliament-house to the Castle. And, through a double line formed by them, the addresses were carried to the Lord Lieutenant.

An event was now taking place which had not yet happened in the history of the two kingdoms of Great Britain, and Ireland. The people of Ireland were openly standing forth in vindication of their constitutional and commercial claims. They were boldly looking the Parliament of Great Britain in the face, and calling upon it to do away the unjust laws, without exception, by which it had restrained the trade of Ireland.

A general expectation of redress was now diffused through the kingdom, not wholly free however from anxiety and suspicion of being disappointed by the spirit of tyranny and monopoly which had ever before directed the councils of England respecting the affairs of Ireland. Limiting the bill of supply was now generally esteemed the only sure ground of hope to compel England to do us justice.—When this point came to be considered in Parliament, it was carried by a majority of the Commons. A six months' money-bill therefore passed both houses, and was transmitted to England, to which the necessity of the times forced the ministry to assent.—Such was the state of affairs in Ireland dur-

* The expression of *temporary expedients*, used in the address of the Commons, alluded to the information the Lord Lieutenant had given them, that a sum of money (50,000 guineas) had been remitted from the exchequer in England for reimbursing the expences of an encampment, while the combined fleets were in the channel; the Irish exchequer being exhausted.

ing the recess of the British parliament. It met in December 1779. The minister immediately gave notice, that in less than a week he would move for a committee of the whole house to take the affairs of Ireland into consideration.

Accordingly on the 13th of December, he brought forward his propositions relative to this country. The intent was to repeal the laws which prohibited the exportation of Irish manufactures, made of or mixed with wool and wool flocks from Ireland to any part of Europe. To repeal so much of the act of George II. as prohibited the importation of glass into Ireland, except of British manufacture, or to export glass from hence—to permit Ireland to export and import commodities to and from the British colonies in America, and the West Indies and her settlements on the coast of Africa, subject to such regulations and restrictions as should be imposed by the parliament of Ireland.

Bills in conformity to all these particulars were brought in by the then minister, Lord North, and passed into laws. When intelligence of this reached Ireland, the pleasure generally felt was expressed in the most lively manner; but when the feelings natural to men in such a situation subsided, the people began to reflect, that the word of a British minister, or an act of the British legislature, was too precarious a tenure for their rights, liberties, and trade. It was considered, that as the British parliament had, not from respect for our rights, but only from necessity, repealed the laws obnoxious to Ireland, she might not only renew these, but even lay more oppressive restrictions on our trade, when that necessity should cease to exist.

To secure the advantages of trade, and insure their permanency, it was necessary we should free our constitution from the usurped claim of the British parliament, of a right to make laws to bind this country in all cases whatsoever. The freedom of the press was never more valuable than at this time: its exertions were uncommonly spirited and effectual to diffuse and invigorate this patriotic flame. Resolutions were entered into by the most numerous and respectable corps of Volunteers; that "Ireland was an independent kingdom, entitled by reason, by nature, and by compact, to all the privileges and immunities of a free constitution; that no power in the universe, save the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, had or ought to have authority to make laws to bind us; and that in support of these inherent and inalienable rights, in opposition to the claims of any foreign legislature, they were determined to risque their property and lives."—Notwithstanding Government set themselves strongly in opposition to our constitutional rights, and a majority in parliament were servilely obedient to their dictates, a number, however, of virtuous members, glowing with patriotism, used every constitutional endeavour to gratify the people.—Their endeavours were now ineffectual.

Hitherto the Irish army had been regulated by an English act of parliament; to place it under the direction of our legislature, a mutiny bill was brought into the House of Commons, giving the army a constitutional existence of no longer duration than from session to session; it passed, but in England was made perpetual. The alteration was tamely submitted to, and the bill passed into a law. This remedy was worse than the disease; and as it was generally esteemed highly dangerous to our liberties, it excited much dissatisfaction.

This was much increased, by two fruitless attempts made in the House of Commons respecting our liberties, one for obtaining an act to modify Poyning's law, and the other to secure the independence of the Judges. The nation, at the opening of the sessions, conceived the most flattering expectations from the spirited conduct of parliament; the dishonourable conclusion of it created universal disgust.

The Volunteers still continued to increase—the reviews in 1781 were more numerous than the year before—at Belfast there were reviewed more than 5000 men, whose martial appearance was heightened by a train of 13 pieces of cannon, which they brought into the field.

In autumn the combined fleets of France and Spain appeared in the Channel, with an

intention, as was supposed, to invade Ireland. The moment this intelligence arrived, the Volunteers assembled, and, from all quarters made an offer of their assistance to government. They did duty in some garrison towns, in place of the soldiers, who had been called off to more distant parts of the kingdom; and there is no doubt, had the enemy landed, but that they would have acquitted themselves with distinguished honour.—For their behaviour on this occasion, they received again the thanks of both Houses of Parliament.

Lord Carlisle, who came over as Lord Lieutenant on the 23d of December, 1780, had the address, most effectually, to direct our parliament; that which met the following winter under his auspices, did, in every single instance, coincide with the wishes of government. All the attempts which were made by the patriotic members to obtain a repeal of the perpetual mutiny bill and Poyning's act, every effort in favour of the rights of the people were wholly ineffectual. This intolerable treatment roused the national resentment, and procured a glorious exertion which emancipated our country. It originated with the Officers of the southern battalion of the Armagh regiment of Volunteers, who, at a meeting on 28th Dec. 1781, entered into several spirited resolutions, and particularly requested a meeting of Delegates from every Volunteer corps in the province of Ulster, to be held in Dungannon on the 15th February following, to deliberate on the present alarming situation of public affairs.—The novelty and boldness of the measure astonished the public; government and its friends used every means to prevent the intended meeting.—Whilst the minds of men were thus variously affected, the important 15th of February, 1782, arrived. Representatives from 143 corps attended at Dungannon.—What follows was the result of that memorable assembly:

“Whereas it has been asserted that Volunteers, as such, cannot with propriety debate or publish their opinions, on political subjects, or on the conduct of parliament, or public men:

“Resolved unanimously, that a citizen by learning the use of arms does not abandon any of his civil rights.

“Resolved unanimously, that a claim of any body of men, other than the king, lords and commons of Ireland, to make laws to bind this kingdom, is unconstitutional, illegal and a grievance.

“Resolved, with one dissenting voice only, that the powers exercised by the privy council of both kingdoms, under, or under colour or pretence of the Law of Poyning's, are unconstitutional and a grievance.

“Resolved unanimously, that the ports of this country, are, by right, open to all foreign countries, not at war with the king, and that any burden thereupon, or obstruction thereto, save only by the parliament of Ireland, are unconstitutional, illegal and a grievance.

“Resolved, with one dissenting voice only, that a mutiny bill, not limited in point of duration from session to session, is unconstitutional and a grievance.

“Resolved unanimously, that the independence of judges is equally essential to the impartial administration of justice in Ireland as in England, and that the refusal or delay of this right to Ireland, makes a distinction where there should be no distinction, may excite jealousy where perfect union should prevail, and is, in itself, unconstitutional and a grievance.

“Resolved, with eleven dissenting voices only, that it is our decided and unalterable determination to seek a redress of these grievances, and we pledge ourselves to each other and to our country, as freeholders, fellow citizens and men of honor, that we will, at every ensuing election, support those only who have supported and will support us therein, and that we will use all constitutional means to make such our pursuit of redress speedy and effectual.

“Resolved, with one dissenting voice only, that the right honourable and honourable

the minority in parliament, who have supported these our constitutional rights, are entitled to our most grateful thanks, and that the annexed address be signed by the chairman and published with these resolutions.

"Resolved unanimously, that four members from each county of the province of Ulster, eleven to be a quorum, be and are hereby appointed a committee till next general meeting, to act for the Volunteer corps here represented, and, as occasion shall require, to call general meetings of the province." The committee were appointed. They then

"Resolved unanimously, that the committee be and are hereby instructed to call a general meeting of the province, within twelve months from this day, or in fourteen days after the dissolution of the present parliament, should such an event sooner take place.

"Resolved unanimously, that said committee do appoint nine of their members to be a committee in Dublin, in order to communicate with such other Volunteer associations in the other provinces, as may think proper to come to similar resolutions, and to deliberate with them on the most constitutional means of carrying them into effect."

Portugal, most unjustly, had refused to admit to entry certain Irish commodities, in respect to which the delegates

"Resolved unanimously, that the court of Portugal had acted towards this kingdom, being a part of the British empire, in such a manner as to call upon them to declare and to pledge themselves to each other, that they would not consume any wine of the growth of Portugal, and that they would, to the extent of their influence, prevent the use of said wine, except the wine at present in this kingdom, until such time as our exports should be received in the kingdom of Portugal, as the manufactures of part of the British empire."

Policy had begun to inspire more favourable sentiments with respect to the Roman Catholics, in consequence of which our legislature had afforded them some, and were about to afford them farther relief from the oppressions under which they had hitherto laboured. With a view to these acts of justice and humanity, the delegates added the two following resolutions.

"Resolved, with two dissenting voices only to this and the following resolution, that we hold the right of private judgment, in matters of religion, to be equally sacred in others as in ourselves.

"Resolved, therefore, that as men and as Irishmen, as Christians and as Protestants, we rejoice in the relaxation of the penal laws against our Roman Catholic fellow subjects, and that we conceive the measure to be fraught with the happiest consequences to the union and the prosperity of the inhabitants of Ireland."

The following was the address agreed upon to the minority in both houses of parliament.

"My Lords and Gentlemen,

"We thank you for your noble and spirited, though hitherto ineffectual efforts in defence of the great constitutional and commercial rights of your country. Go on. The almost unanimous voice of the people is with you, and, in a free country, the voice of the people must prevail. We know our duty to our sovereign and are loyal; we know our duty to ourselves and are resolved to be free. We seek for our rights and no more than our rights, and, in so just a pursuit, we should doubt the being of a Providence, if we doubted of success."

The provincial committee having met and chosen the members of the national committee for the province of Ulster, unanimously resolved

"That the corps of this province not represented at the meeting held this day, be and they are hereby invited to join in the resolutions of said meeting and to become members of the said association on the most equal footing.

"That such corps as may choose to join the said association, be and they are hereby requested to communicate their intentions to our secretary."

The resolutions and address which were equally distinguished by spirit, by wisdom,

and by moderation, were universally admired: They were adopted by the Volunteers of every province with an unanimity and zeal approaching to enthusiasm; committees of correspondence were formed in every province, and the national committee served to concentrate the sentiments of the Volunteers from all parts of the kingdom. Immediately after the Dungannon meeting, an association was formed of the nobility, freeholders, and inhabitants of the county of Armagh, wherein they asserted the right of this kingdom to be governed by such laws only as should be enacted by the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland, pledging themselves to each other, and to their country, to resist the execution of any statutes, but such as should derive authority from said parliament, and to support with their lives and fortunes, this their solemn declaration.

This declaration inspired the people with uncommon zeal; it ran with electric rapidity throughout the whole kingdom—grand juries, cities, towns, corporations, parishes, as with one voice, declared similar sentiments.

In this animated state of the country, an important change took place in the English administration, which contributed to accelerate the accomplishment of the popular requisitions. Lord North and his friends gave place to a new ministry more agreeable to the people, as being actuated by more liberal principles of government. In consequence of which change, Lord Carlisle was recalled from the government of Ireland, and the Duke of Portland appointed in his room. He arrived in the beginning of April, 1782; and shortly after sent a message to parliament, expressing his Majesty's concern that discontents and jealousies prevailed among his loyal subjects of Ireland, and recommended their taking the same into consideration, in order to such final adjustment, as might give mutual satisfaction to the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland.

"The commons, unanimously, represented their own sentiments and those of the nation concerning the state of the kingdom, in an address to the throne, in which, after thanking his Majesty for his gracious message, and declaring their attachment to his person and government, they assure him, that his subjects of Ireland are a free people, that the crown of Ireland is an imperial crown, inseparably annexed to the crown of Great Britain, on which connexion, the interests and happiness of both nations essentially depend: But that the kingdom of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, with a parliament of her own, the sole legislature thereof; that there is no body of men competent to make laws to bind this nation, except the king, lords and commons of Ireland, nor any other parliament which hath any authority or power, of any sort whatsoever, in this country, save only the parliament of Ireland. They assure his Majesty, that they humbly conceive, that in this right the very essence of their liberties did exist, a right which they, on the part of all the people of Ireland, do claim as their birthright, and which they cannot yield but with their lives. They assure his Majesty, that they had seen, with concern, certain claims advanced by the parliament of Great Britain, in an act, entitled an act for the better securing the dependency of Ireland; an act containing matter entirely irreconcilable to the fundamental rights of this nation. They inform his Majesty, that they conceive this act and the claims it advances to be the great and principal cause of the discontents and jealousies in this kingdom. They assure the King, that his Majesty's commons of Ireland do most sincerely wish, that all bills which become law in Ireland, should receive the approbation of his Majesty, under the seal of Great Britain, but that yet they consider the practice of suppressing our bills in the council of Ireland, or altering the same any where, to be another just cause of discontent and jealousy. They assure his Majesty, that an act, entitled an act for the better accommodation of his Majesty's forces, being unlimited in duration, and defective in other instances, but passed in that shape from the particular circumstances of the times, is another just cause of discontent and jealousy in this kingdom. They inform his Majesty, that they had submitted these, the principal causes of the present discontent and jealousy of Ireland, in humble expectation of redress. They express their confidence and satisfaction in his Majesty's wisdom, in the choice of the chief governor he had made, and

in the constitutional councils which he had adopted. They conclude with assuring the King that they were more confident in the hope of redress, as the people of Ireland had been and were not more disposed to share the freedom of England than to support her in her difficulties and to share her fate. A similar address was moved and agreed to unanimously in the house of lords."

In consequence of these addresses, the English declaratory act of George I. was repealed; and the parliament of Ireland proceeded upon and passed

"A bill to empower the lord lieutenant, or other chief governor or governors and council of this kingdom, for the time being, to certify all such bills and none other as both houses of parliament shall judge expedient to be enacted in this kingdom, to his Majesty his heirs and successors, under the great seal of Ireland, without addition, diminution or alteration: All such bills thus transmitted and returned under the great seal of Great Britain, without addition, diminution or alteration, and none other to pass in the parliament of this kingdom: No bill necessary to be certified into Great Britain as a cause or consideration for holding a parliament in Ireland.

"A bill to limit the mutiny act to two years and to repeal the other obnoxious parts of the late statute.

"A bill enacting that, from henceforth, all erroneous judgments, orders and decrees shall be finally examined and reformed in the high court of parliament in this kingdom only, and that, for this purpose, the lord lieutenant, or other chief governor, or governors, shall and may grant warrants for sealing writs of error returnable into parliament.

"An habeas corpus law, and one for rendering the judges independent of the crown were also enacted.

A number of people in this country held their estates by the authority of English laws; to quiet their minds, an act likewise passed impressing these British statutes with the sanction of the Irish legislature. These were advantages, all of which were highly necessary to our liberty, some of them more eminently essential to it; but, until this glorious period of freedom, we had contended for them in vain.

The following laws were enacted respecting Roman Catholics.

"By an act passed in seventeen hundred and seventy eight, Roman Catholics were empowered to take leases, for any term of years, not exceeding nine hundred and ninety-nine, or for any term of years determinable on any number of lives not exceeding five. They were now enabled to purchase or take by grant, limitation, descent or devise, any lands, tenements or hereditaments in this kingdom, with certain exceptions, and to dispose of them by will or otherwise, to descend according to the course of common law, deviseable and transferable in like manner as the lands of Protestants. By the same law, certain penal acts respecting the hearing and the celebrating of mass, forbidding Roman Catholics to keep a horse of or above the value of five pounds, empowering grand juries to levy from them, in their respective districts, money to the amount of such losses as were sustained by the depredations of privateers, requiring them to provide, in towns, Protestant watchmen, and forbidding them to inhabit the city of Limerick or suburbs, were repealed.

"So much of former acts as forbade them to teach school publicly, or to instruct youth, of their own profession, in private, was also repealed and a law enacted to permit them to have the guardianship the care and tuition of their own children.

"Thus were Roman Catholics, by the equity of our legislature, to the honor of Protestants and of the present distinguished period, restored to these privileges, of which, during a long season of oppression, they had been most unjustly deprived. It is not merely the advantages they have now obtained, which encourage them to be pleased with their situation and to look forward with comfort to happier days. Their most flattering prospect arises from the spirit of the times. This, which was cherished and diffused by the Duggan resolutions, operates strongly in their favour. The unwise policy of injuring their

rights is now pretty clearly understood; and unchristian bigotry with respect to them has lost much of its influence."

"The glorious efforts of our Volunteers, were in a peculiar manner, the object of gratitude and the theme of universal panegyric. Every benefactor of the nation, in proportion to his exertions in the common cause, was the subject of praise. But none was placed in so conspicuous a point of view as Mr. Grattan. This faithful senator had always maintained a most respectable character, but from the commencement of the present struggle for liberty, he stepped forth as the most strenuous advocate of our rights, in defence of which, his great abilities, his eloquence and persevering firmness appeared with a distinguished lustre. His countrymen, by warm and repeated expressions of applause had animated him to persevere. On the present occasion, addresses of thanks conveying the strongest sentiments of esteem and gratitude, flowed in upon him from all quarters. From the commons, he received a proof of gratitude, honourable in the highest degree and more substantial. They addressed the King to give him fifty thousand pounds as a recompense of his services, for which they engaged to make provision. This request was complied with."

The satisfaction diffused on the passing of the popular laws in this session, was much abated by the occurrence of several circumstances, inspiring a belief of the insufficiency of a repeal of the declaratory act of the sixth of George I. notwithstanding the point was determined in its favour in the last debate on the subject in the Irish House of Commons, with only six dissenting voices.

The death of the Marquis of Rockingham occasioned another change in the British administration, in consequence of which Earl Temple was appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland on the 31st July, 1782. The discussion of the question, whether the simple repeal of the declaratory law was sufficient or not, agitated the public mind to a great degree, and excited very serious and alarming apprehensions, that our liberties were still upon a very insecure foundation. A representation was thereupon made to the parliament of Great Britain of the dissatisfaction which prevailed here on the subject, and an act, renunciatory of all claim to bind this kingdom by English laws was accordingly passed.—By this law, the fullest and most explicit relinquishment of all right to interfere in the judgments of our courts, or to make acts to bind us, was obtained, and diffused a general satisfaction proportionate to the interest the public felt in the question.

The most important occurrences during the popular, but short administration of Earl Temple, were the correction of some abuses in public offices, and the removal of some of the principals therein. The order of St. Patrick was instituted, and steps taken for the establishment of a colony of Genevese in the county of Waterford. The former was considered as an honour, the other proposed as a benefit, to the kingdom. A revolution had taken place in the constitution of Geneva, by which the democracy was in a great measure excluded from the government; in consequence of which, a negotiation was opened between the British ministry and representatives from a large part of the citizens of that state, in order to adjust the necessary proceedings towards their settlement in this country. A large tract of ground in the above county was allotted for the purpose, a town was marked out, entitled NEW GENEVA, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their reception were, however, rendered ultimately useless, by some misunderstandings, (not fully comprehended) which arose between the parties; and the scheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Another change having taken place in the administration of Great Britain, occasioned the recal of Earl Temple, and the appointment of Lord Northington in his room, who arrived here in June, 1783.

The many fruitless applications of the nation to their representatives for the correction of abuses in the government; the little weight of the people, and the inadequacy of their representation; the large portion of the House of Commons composed of decayed boroughs; the property held in these boroughs by a small aristocracy; and the general cor-

rupt influence which every administration was observed to have over this aristocracy: these considerations suggested the propriety of the people's interference, in order to obtain a reform in the Commons House of Parliament. According to the received constitutional ideas, there never was a measure adopted in these kingdoms of more undeniable propriety and necessity, or a proposition in which reason and common sense could be more aptly or forcibly applied in aid of; especially if it was intended by our ancestors, that the beautiful theory of our government should be reduced to practice.

The subject was taken up with seriousness and effect, by the delegates of forty-five Volunteer corps, assembled at Lisburn on the 1st of July, 1783. The most considerable steps entered upon on this occasion were, the inviting the Volunteers of Ulster to a meeting on the 8th of September, and appointing a committee to meet in the mean time at Belfast, to correspond with several of the most distinguished characters in Great Britain, who were understood to be friends to a parliamentary reform.

The partial and isolated meetings to which that at Lisburn had led the way, were followed by a grand meeting of delegates for the province of Ulster, which was held at Dunganannon on the 8th of September, in pursuance of the original designation. At this meeting appeared some of the most respectable characters in that province. The resolutions were carried unanimously, and expressed with precision and perspicuity the principles upon which it was intended their reform should be founded. One of the most important, was for the chusing by ballot a committee of five persons from each county, to represent the Volunteer army in a grand national convention to be held at Dublin on the tenth of November following. They also agreed upon an address to the three other provinces, who shortly after, adopted similar resolutions; and, on the appointed day, delegates from the Volunteer Corps of all the counties in Ireland assembled at the Rotunda in Dublin.— This was a spectacle at once novel and august: The people of Ireland in their united characters of citizen and soldier, represented by the most upright and independent personages in the kingdom, aggregated for the most important of all purposes, that of reforming and purifying their constitution.

The first object of the convention, was the appointment of the Earl of Charlemont their President; they then chose a committee, for the purpose of preparing a specific plan of parliamentary reform. By this committee a number of resolutions were digested, which were submitted to, and ultimately adopted by, the convention at large. These resolutions were in substance, "That every Protestant, in any city or borough, possessed of a freehold of 2l. per annum, should be entitled to vote in the election of members for that city or borough. That every Protestant, possessed of a leasehold interest, which, at its original creation, was for thirty-one years, or upwards, and of which fifteen years were unexpired, should have the same privilege. That no person should be permitted to vote at the election of any representative, unless he were resident in the county, city, or borough to be represented, except his right of voting were constituted by a property of 20l. per annum. That decayed boroughs should be enabled to return representatives by an extension of franchise to the neighbouring parish or parishes. That all boroughs should be deemed to be decayed which did not contain a number of electors, exclusive of those who were entitled to suffrage by the circumstance of being housekeepers, of not less than two hundred for the province of Ulster, one hundred for the provinces of Munster and Connaught, and seventy for the province of Leinster. That the sheriff should take the suffrages of the electors, by deputy, on the same day, at their respective places of residence. That all suffrages should be given *viva voce*, and not by ballot. That no person should be permitted to vote, who had not registered his qualification twelve months previous to the day of election. That every person accepting a pension, otherwise than for life, or a term of twenty-one years, should be deemed incapable of sitting in parliament. That every person accepting a pension of this last sort, or any place of profit under the crown, should thereby vacate his seat in parliament. That every member of parliament should take and subscribe an oath, declaring, that he had neither directly nor indirectly

given entertainment, provisions, employment, or money, with the view of obtaining the suffrage of any elector; and that he would not suffer any person of his relations, or on his account, to accept of any employment, pension, or sum of money, from the crown; so long as he continued to serve in parliament. Finally, that the duration of parliament should not exceed the term of three years."

On the 14th of October the parliament was opened by Lord Northington with a speech from the throne. On the 28th a motion was made in the house of commons for retrenching the national expenses, and reducing the military establishment; which was supported with great ability by Mr. Flood, and opposed by Mr. Grattan. It was in the debate on this question, that the remarkable altercation between these distinguished characters took place, on their respective merits in the service of their country: the contest however was happily prevented from being followed by any more fatal consequences by the exertions of the house; and the motion was lost by a considerable majority.

Shortly after a motion was brought forward in the house of commons, censuring the measure of raising six sensible regiments, but was negatived. These regiments were denominated from the provinces in which they had been raised, and were avowed to be peculiarly intended for national defence, and to consist entirely of natives, consequently interested in the preservation of public liberty. The principle or view upon which they had been embodied, was however viewed with uncommon jealousy, and was extremely unpopular. It was considered as intending to operate against the Volunteers; and some of the most conspicuous persons in that body having accepted commissions in them, was said to give a colour to that opinion, and certainly contributed to render the establishment more offensive in the eyes of the public.

On the 29th November, Mr. Flood moved the House of Commons for leave to bring in a Bill, for the more equal representation of the people in parliament, and was seconded by Mr. Brownlow. After a long debate, the motion was negatived, and administration, confident in their strength, were desirous of fixing a stigma on the measures of the national convention; and therefore moved "that it was now necessary to declare, that the House would support the rights and privileges of parliament against all encroachments." This resolution was carried by a large majority, as was also an address to his Majesty (which received the concurrence of the Lords), expressive of the blessings they enjoyed, and their determination to support inviolate the present constitution with their lives and fortunes.

These proceedings were reported by Mr. Flood to the convention, who thereupon voted an address to his Majesty, expressive of their loyalty, and imploring him to believe, that their proceedings tended only to a sober and laudable desire to uphold the constitution, by the removal of certain manifest perversions, in the parliamentary representation of the kingdom. Having voted this address, the convention adjourned *sine die*.

Thus were the expectations of the public upon this important occasion disappointed; and with such force, and with so high a hand, as certainly furnished one of the strongest arguments for the necessity of the reform.

Before the parliament had adjourned for the Christmas recess, advice was received of a change in the British ministry, and the dismissal of the Duke of Portland. A communication received here with much complacency, from the repugnancy that ministry had shewn to the popular demands of the nation. Lord Northington was recalled from the government of Ireland, in whose room the Duke of Rutland arrived at Dublin, on the 24th of February 1784. During the adjournment the question of parliamentary reform universally engrossed the public attention, and on the reassembling of the House of Commons, (February 18th,) petitions in favour of this object were presented from every part of the kingdom. On the 13th of March, Mr. Flood renewed his motion for leave to bring in a bill for this purpose, which was complied with; but on the second reading, it was rejected by a considerable majority; as were the endeavours of Mr. Grattan for the establishment of a system of oeconomy, in the collection of the national revenue.

At this period the distresses of the manufacturers had arisen to a great height, which

was much aggravated on observing the large importation of goods from England. The people were therefore clamorous for protecting duties, in order to repress these imports and encourage native manufactures. Non-importation agreements were often evaded, or were generally inoperative; and the nation looked to the imposition of such duties as the most effectual means of insuring permanent employment to their numerous starving manufacturers. Mr. Gardiner brought forward some resolutions in the House of Commons for this purpose on the 31st of March, but they were rejected by a very considerable majority, and the hopes of the people from this quarter were completely frustrated.

The public indignation now rose to the greatest pitch. The mob proceeded to the most violent expressions of their resentment, and the public prints teemed with the bitterest invectives against the conduct of individuals in parliament. These produced the celebrated bill, "for securing the Liberty of the Press," as it is called, although its contents are so diametrically opposite to its title; and in order to inflame the minds of the more moderate, or timid, against the popular pursuits and expressions of resentment, the basest and most artful means were made use of to blacken the national character, and to excite alarming apprehensions of assassination; although no proof could be adduced of such design against persons taken up on affected suspicion, but on the contrary the informers were prosecuted for perjury.

Commerce is naturally full of suspicion and mistrust. It takes in every object with the eye of insatiable avarice, and it grasps every species of commodity with an uncommunicative hand. The British ministry were actuated by the most circumspect policy of this trading jealousy, and instructed the Duke of Rutland's administration, to oppose with the highest hand and the most determined vigour, every endeavour of the people of Ireland to obtain the smallest participation of the commercial advantages which England was resolved to retain in the markets of this kingdom. These views were too successfully seconded by our own representatives; and no means were suggested to redress or suspend the effervescence of public anger or discontent on the rejection of the measure of protecting duties, but a hope, that the following session would be employed in a complete adjustment of the commercial differences between the two kingdoms.

The people now justly conceived, that by obtaining a reform in parliament, they would attain the accomplishment of all their wishes, and with their characteristic confidence and credulity, they even expected to find Mr. Pitt favour its success in Ireland, because he affected to promote a similar endeavour in England. Having beheld with all the bitterness of indignation and abhorrence, the measures that had been lately carried; and animated by a thousand feelings of injury endured, they renewed the pursuit of this favourite object, with unprecedented energy; and resolutions were universal, entered into, recommending the exercise of arms to every class of citizens.

In order to interest every part of the community in the renovation of the constitution, and give an accession of strength to the democracy, an idea of extending the elective franchise to Roman Catholics was very generally entertained; and at an aggregate meeting of the citizens of Dublin, held on the 7th of June, amongst other resolutions, expressive of the public opinion, was one, which warmly recommended this idea to their countrymen. To build a liberal system of freedom upon its genuine principles was an ambition worthy the friends of liberty and reform. To hold up an example to Europe and the universe of the abolition of those penalties and proscriptions, which have made so many rebels and villains without finding them so; and of introducing equality and confidence among men of opposite tenets, were motives to animate the mind of every man, sensible to fame, to general happiness, and to virtue.

On the 21st of June, the citizens again assembled, and agreed upon an address to the people of Ireland, and a petition to the King, praying for the dissolution of a parliament which had opposed with so much firmness, every reasonable requisition of their constituents. The proceedings in other parts of the kingdom were in general conformity with those of the metropolis.

The Earl of Charlemont, whose patriotism and steadiness were always in the highest estimation, amongst his countrymen, had been, since the commencement of Volunteering, its principal head and leader, and was honoured for several successive years with the distinguished office of Reviewing General. He was called on as usual to review the Volunteers of Ulster, assembled at Belfast, on the 12th of July 1784; and on that occasion their officers presented him with an address, calculated to inspire the most elevated idea of the character of that nobleman. Amongst other political observations, suggested by the circumstances of the times, they expressed their satisfaction at the decay of those prejudices, which had so long involved the nation in feud and disunion; a disunion which, by limiting the rights of suffrage, and circumscribing the number of their citizens, had in a great degree created and fostered the aristocratic tyranny, the source of every grievance, and against which the public voice now unanimously exclaimed.

The answer of his Lordship was not in unison with these sentiments, nor tended to encourage the enlarged views of toleration, entertained by the Volunteers on this occasion.

Its influence was immediate; and it was employed with wide and malignant effect by the enemies of parliamentary reform, to foment discord, and excite alarms in the minds of its friends. These endeavours were but too successful,—a new principle was roused in the public mind,—and the ultimate miscarriage of parliamentary reformation, is partly imputable to the advantage taken of this unfortunate opposition of sentiment.

On the 20th September, the Citizens of Dublin assembled at the Tholsel to choose their representatives for the approaching meeting of a congress. On this occasion, Mr. Sheriff Kirkpatrick read a letter written to him by the Attorney General, threatening him with an official prosecution in the Court of King's Bench, if he should hold or preside at a meeting held for such a purpose. The assembly accordingly broke up; but met in a few days after at the Weaver's Hall, and having placed Sir Edward Newenham in the chair, they chose their representatives, and came to several resolutions, declaratory of their right to assemble and deliberate for the redress of grievances.

The opposition of administration to the pursuits of the people, was neither to be restrained within the bounds of the law, nor repressed from apprehension of their resentment: It was violent, unconstitutional and oppressive. The High Sheriff of the County of Dublin, Mr. Reilly, was prosecuted by attachment in the King's Bench, and sentenced to fine and imprisonment (29th November 1784), for having convened his county for electing their representatives for the purpose above mentioned; and similar proceedings were instituted against magistrates in other parts of the kingdom, for the like offences, as they were denominated. About this time, on occasion of inflicting the punishment of whipping on a fellow, who had been found guilty of some unlawful excesses, in enforcing the non-importation agreement, a few stones were thrown; upon which the military fired, and several innocent persons were killed or wounded. One of the magistrates was much blamed for the sanguinary orders alledged to have been given by him to the soldiery on that day.

During several months the fervour of the public mind was unexhausted; and even the theatre became a scene of one of its most ardent ebullitions. The Duke of Rutland's appearance there was attended with the most clamorous execrations, and the interruptions of the drama subsided but with the early dismissal of the audience.—When it is considered, in how many favourite objects the people had been disappointed; in how many instances they were insulted by the brow of power, and grappled by the arm of the law:—that the rights of juries were violated:—that the exploded doctrines of the days of tyranny were revived, and attachments assumed the colour of legality and obtained the acquiescence of parliament: When these causes of irritation are considered in the calm hour of untroubled reflection, it will not excite much wonder in the dispassionate mind, if a people, naturally warm and full of sensibility, should rush into the most intemperate expressions of their indignation and resentment*.

* It is astonishing with what avidity every peccadillo of the people of Ireland is magnified into crimes of enormity; and those whose duty, rank and education should place them above the temptations of petty motives, are too often observed, giving the sanction of their names to the most incredible and unfounded libels on the character and conduct of their country. A noble peer, not

our trade and constitution *. The fourth resolution which more particularly invaded the latter, claimed, as an "essential to this settlement, that all goods and commodities of the "growth, produce or manufacture of British or foreign colonies in America, or the West "Indies, and the British or foreign settlements on the coast of Africa, imported into Ire- "land, should, on importation, be subject to the same duties and regulations, as the like "goods are, or from time to time shall be, subject to, upon importation into Great Bri- "tain; or if prohibited to be imported into Great Britain, shall be prohibited in like man- "ner from being imported into Ireland." The other resolutions, though communicating many advantages in trade, contained also such restrictions as left it perpetually at the mercy of Britain, and interdicted it as well in respect to place, as to circumstance and time. The contracted limits of this work will not permit us to enter into the particulars of this most important bill, or the arguments advanced in its favour, or opposed to it. The debate continued till nine o'clock the following morning, when on a division, there were for bringing in the bill 127, against it 108. This majority was so small, that administration thought it prudent to avoid the risk of a defeat in the progress of the bill, and therefore withdrew it in two days after; an event which diffused the most universal joy throughout the kingdom, and was shortly after followed by the close of the session of parliament.

A variety of political situations and topics succeed each other with great rapidity in this period of the history of Ireland. The disquisitions of parliamentary reform were with some violence detested from the minds of men by the introduction of the commercial system. That system had scarcely received its quietus from parliament before those scenes of tumult, outrage and violence commenced in the southern extremity, which quickly spread themselves over a great portion of the island. These considerations however, do not rise upon one another in sublimity, grandeur and attraction. Discussions of commerce are less interesting than discussions of liberty; and the scenes of barbarism and anarchy which we are now to notice, are rather painful and disgusting than attractive. But we cannot mould the concurrence of events to the facitious precepts of rhetoric and composition, we must follow them as they are traced by the caprices of men, or the unalterable laws of destiny. The modern annals of Ireland have frequently been marked with tumultuary proceedings that blot the page of history. They unquestionably compose a poignant satire upon the administration and maxims of its government; whether or not they are injurious to the character of the nation, is a point that admits of greater doubt and uncertainty. The condition of the people among whom they have broken out, is acknowledged on all sides to be pitiable and forlorn; and, if they originated in the sharp goadings of hunger and oppression, and the wild transports of despair, the intrinsic character of the country is then completely vindicated. Tumults we see indeed are followed by proclamations announcing the disorders of the country, and then the soldier and the executioner do their duty; but how often do we behold one solitary effort to remove the causes, or reform the morals or manners, in which these disorders may have had their birth?

For several months the press teemed with accounts of these excesses, and with observations on them; and a literary warfare took place in the capital, which at length became so

* This debate was published very fully and correctly by Mr. Woodfall, and its merit was spoken of by the best critics in England in the following terms:

"As grand occasions gave birth to great eloquence, so the eloquence of the Irish senators, on the whole, far exceeds that of the present English orators. There is more of sincerity in it, it is more impassioned, it comes more directly from the heart, while at the same time it is more enriched with stores of cultivated and lively fancy. There is only one man in the British senate that equals the various and lively strains of Irish oratory, and it is remarkable that he is an Irishman.

"We cannot, without more particular attention, pass over the sublime and energetic strains of Mr. Grattan, who animates and swells his pathetic addresses by whatever is most powerful and majestic in nature—God; A Providence; the dispensations of grace; the relation we stand in to the supreme Being, and our fellow-men the children of the same common parent, independently of human institutions. There has not such an orator appeared in the British empire, since the days of Lord Bolingbroke; for Lord Chatham was not so learned and various; Mr. Fox is rather a sharp and forcible reasoner than a sublime and pathetic orator; and Mr. Burke, though learned, copious, various, and pleasing, wants vigour and compression."

acrimonious, and so involved in abstract points of polemical controversy, that the original subject seemed to be forgotten in the personal antipathies, or speculative prejudices, of the champions. The dispassionate enquirer after truth is perplexed with contradictions, or seeks in vain for a generally-acknowledged cause of the evil, from such materials.

The disadvantages that are experienced by the inhabitants of the south, are numerous. In the first place, a very great majority of them are catholics; and this is a fruitful source of hardship and oppression. The south has at least been stationary in improvement, while other parts of the kingdom have advanced with rapidity. While the wages of the labouring hind have been low, frequently at the rate of four pence *per diem*, the demands of the landlord have been pressing and enormous. Finding it no easy matter to realize his rents, he has gone on to throw the peasantry into the hands of a middle man, whose rapacity is to be satisfied in addition to the receipts of the proprietor. This is probably the principal and predominant grievance of the inhabitants of Munster; and the contributing to two religious establishments, becomes secondary grievances, because the first is so intolerable as to render the burden of the others insupportable.

Whilst religion is necessary to the good of society, the maintenance of its ministers should be liberal and respectable, becoming their rank, their education, and their importance; but in the collection of Tythes, the Proctor, like the middle-man, is too often the scourge of the peasant; and, unmoved by the inability of the cultivator, treads upon the heels of providence, and sacrifices what the judgments of heaven may have left imperfect, to the brutality of his temper, or the insatiableness of his avarice. The clergyman himself, so far from receiving more than he is entitled to by law, often receives but a twentieth, under the denomination of a tenth; yet his claim being more variable and fluctuating than that of the lordlord, often assumes the appearance of intolerable calamity. In addition to this circumstance, by a kind of unexampled absurdity, the vote of agistment exempts the pasture lands, whilst the operation of Tythes is directed solely to agriculture. The grazier is rich, the husbandman is poor: the grazier is generally the protestant; the husbandman is generally the catholic. Thus, almost the only man, who contributes to the support of the ecclesiastical establishment, is the man who has no capital, is least able, and who does not, even in appearance, derive any benefit from it. Without pretending to claim superior penetration, or decide in points which have already excited so much irascibility, we conceive these to be, at least, some of the sources to which the disorders of the kingdom are often imputable. Whatever they are, the senate has left the subject in a state of indecision during three successive sessions.

On the 23th January 1787, the parliament was opened with a speech from the throne, by his Grace the Duke of Rutland; in which among other points, he laments the continuance of disorders in the south, and recommends the enactment of laws for their correction; and he informed them of a treaty of Commerce having been concluded between his majesty and the most christian King.

In pursuance of his Excellency's recommendation, acts for "preventing tumultuous risings and assemblies," and for the "better execution of the law" were passed. The secretary informed the House of Commons, that the Portugal trade in which we were so long restricted, was now settled and open; and towards the close of the session, proposed a number of resolutions, (in conformity with his Excellency's recommendation at the opening of parliament), for laying a foundation for a system of national Education, to be passed in the succeeding session. These resolutions disclosed a plan of great capacity, and met the general approbation of the House; but the death of the Duke of Rutland, which happened on the 25th of October following, and other unaccountable circumstances, have prevented the nation from yet tasting a blessing of such value.

These were the principal occurrences at this period; the death of the Duke of Rutland, in the government, occasioned the appointment of the Primate, the Chancellor and the Rt. Hon. John Foster, Speaker, as Lords Justices,—until the arrival of the Marquis of Buckingham (late Earl of Temple) as Chief Governor, who was sworn into office on the 16th of

December, and opened the parliament with a speech from the throne on the 17th January 1788. Amongst the objects which principally engrossed their attention, was a bill for the reduction of legal interest to five per cent. which passed the Commons, but was thrown out in the House of Lords;—and a laborious enquiry into abuses committed by the Police of the City of Dublin, which however was no farther remedied, than by a trivial modification of the law.

On the meeting of parliament, February 5th 1789, his Excellency the Marquis of L Buckingham informed them of “a severe malady” with which the King was afflicted, and recommending their adoption of such measures, as should appear to them necessary on the present melancholy occasion. The House of Commons, accordingly, resolved “that the exercise of the royal authority is interrupted by the indisposition of his Majesty,” and secondly, “that an humble address be presented to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, to take upon him the government of this realm during his Majesty’s indisposition, and no longer, under the stile and title of **PRINCE REGENT OF IRELAND**, and to exercise and administer, according to the laws and the constitution of this realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging.”

These resolutions were concurred in by the lords, and an address presented to the Lord Lieutenant, requesting he would transmit the address of both houses of parliament to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, to accept the regency of this kingdom.—This his Excellency declined, as contrary to his oath and to the laws. The two houses thereupon resolved on appointing delegates from each, to present their address to the Prince: the lords, appointed the Duke of Leinster and the Earl of Charlemont, and the commons, the Right Honourable Thomas Conolly, Right Honourable John O’Neill, the Right Honourable W. B. Ponsonby and James Stewart, Esq. They then proceeded to resolve, that the lords and commons in addressing his Royal Highness on this occasion “had exercised an undoubted right, and discharged an indispensable duty, to which they, and they alone, in the present emergency, were competent.” This was followed by a resolution of censure on the Lord Lieutenant from both houses, for expressions contained in his answer on refusing to transmit the address.

The delegates proceeded to London, and presented the address to his Royal Highness, by whom they were most graciously received; but his Majesty having, to the infinite joy of all subjects, recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned them an answer, fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they proposed investing him with the regency, but, that the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unnecessary.

The prospect of change in the administration of England had induced the friends of Ireland, to bring several salutary laws into parliament, particularly for depriving revenue officers of the right of voting at elections; and for excluding placemen and pensioners from the house of commons,—but these, and every other law which promised to purify the constitution, or serve the people, were rejected, when the recovery of his Majesty had confirmed the administration in power. The enquiry into the police establishment of the metropolis, in this as in the preceding session, disclosed the most wanton profusion of public money, the grossest abuse of power, and the most obvious inefficacy in its effects; but being instituted for patronage and corruption, was justified by the silent acquiescence of parliament.

The most valuable act of this session, was that for distributing 200,000*l.* (to be raised upon the tillage duties) to companies for carrying on inland navigations, at the rate of 25,000*l.* per annum, and in proportion to one third of the estimated expense of each particular line. Amongst other undertakings which will meritedly participate in this grant, the *Royal Canal*, intended to go from the north side of the metropolis to the Shannon, seems to have the strongest claim, as the most conspicuous in extent, in advantage to the kingdom, and in spirit of enterprize.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was the isle of Anglesea, not this island. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because lying in St George's Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona seems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britannie kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only making allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The better sorts of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which is swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate, and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peel, which of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty's revenue; and this necessarily leads me to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas, whom I have before mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over the island; though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes, in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on his favourite Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family-honours and estate being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishopric, first upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last Lord Derby. Reasons of state rendered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs and the island from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government

is altered; and the king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, also, retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers; his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and hospitality, and his unrelenting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks language to render them more generally useful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind: but his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and Common Prayer Book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendor of its ancient possessors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS island is situated opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to south about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the southern parts; the soil is various, but so great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight: and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which affords fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its

extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties, the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situation of their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes: and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrooke castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who taking refuge here; was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. By their situation between the English channel and St. George's channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

In the English channel are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CAESAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty-four miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent

upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine: and the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl almost of every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is as it were a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY, is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one apiece. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable; because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants speak French: but want of firing is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Castle, and the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and the soil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

F R A N C E.

HAVING gone over the British isles, we shall now return to the continent, beginning with the extensive and mighty kingdom of France, being the nearest to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 600 } between { 5 west and 8 East longitude.
 Breadth 500 } { 42 and 51 North latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands, North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biscay, West.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimensions of the several parts distinctly specified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

Countries Names.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
France.					
	Orleannois -	22,950	230	180	Orleans.
	Guienne -	12,800	216	120	Bordeaux.
	Gascoigne -	8,800	125	90	Aux, or Augh.
	Languedoc -	13,175	200	115	Thouloufe.
	Lyonnois -	12,500	175	130	Lyons.
	Champagne -	10,000	140	110	Rheims.
	Bretagne -	9,100	170	105	Rennes.
	Normandy -	8,200	155	85	Rouen.
Catholics	Provence -	6,800	95	92	Aix.
	Burgundy -	6,700	150	86	Dijon.
	Dauphine -	5,820	107	90	Grenoble.
	Isle of France	5,200	100	85	PARIS { N. Lat. 84-50. E. Lon. 2-25.
	Franche Comte -	4,000	100	60	Besançon.
	Picardy -	3,650	120	87	Amieas.
	Rouffillon -	1,400	50	44	Perpignan.
	Artois -	990	63	32	Arras.
Netherlands	Hainault -	800	57	22	Valenciennes.
	Flanders -	760	58	22	Lille.
	Luxemburg -	292	48	13	Thionville.
Germany	Lorraine -	2,500	—	—	Metz.
	Alsace -	2,250	95	30	Strasbourg.
Total		138,687			

To these is to be added the island of Corfica; but the city of Avignon, with the Venaissin, was in 1774 ceded to the pope.

The following table, extracted from a work lately executed by order of the French government, exhibits that kingdom divided in a different manner from the above, under the name of Generalities, with the population of each.*

Names of the Generalities.	Population.	Names of the Generalities.	Population.	Names of the Generalities.	Population.
Aix -	754,000	Lyons -	633,600	Riom -	681,500
Amiens -	533,300	Metz -	349,300	Rouen -	740,700
Auch -	702,000	Montauban -	530,200	Caën -	644,000
Bezançon -	678,800	Montpellier -	1,699,200	Alençon -	528,200
Bordeaux -	850,000	Molens -	564,400	Soissons -	437,200
Bourges -	512,500	Nancy -	834,600	Strasbourg -	616,400
Chalons -	812,800	Orleans -	709,400	Tours -	1,338,700
Dijon -	1,087,300	Paris -	1,781,700	Valenciennes -	205,400
Grenoble -	664,600	Pau et Bayonne -	640,000	Isle de Corfe -	124,000
La Rochelle -	479,700	Perpignan -	188,900		
Lille -	734,600	Poitiers -	690,500		
Limoges -	646,500	Rennes -	2,276,000		
					24,800,000

* For the information contained in this Table, as well as several other particulars in the account of France, equally authentic, the publisher is indebted to the liberal communication of a Gentleman of the first consequence and intelligence in this Kingdom.

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, or *Freemen*, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themselves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholesome; but some late authors think it is not nearly so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged, that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country. It must indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chefnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious security in their own property, do not apply themselves sufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But Nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vast plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. I shall afterwards speak of their canals and mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauze, which divide Lorraine from Burgundy and Allace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comte from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first, north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add, the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the

Moselle and the Sarre in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Bessè, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND } REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success, with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alsace are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at Spring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I must omit them, as well as many remarkable springs: but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and sallads they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their

culture. The province of Gastenois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coast of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on the sea-coasts, with salt water fish.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } According to the latest and best
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } calculations, France contains at present about 24,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately supposed, by some speculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline: but, upon an accurate investigation, the reverse appeared to be fact; though this country certainly lost a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than personal beauty; the peasantry in general, are remarkably coarse, and are best described by being contrasted with those of the same ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, &c. &c.; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle in that exercise, and accommodate themselves to the English manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Protestant, and justly styled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion; but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the succeeding persecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Protestant countries, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of the country that persecuted them.

magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the English; but the other ranks of life are despicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence not only of the English nobility and gentry in general, but of the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character; and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character, however, is conspicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common soldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroism. Hence it has been observed, with great justice, of the French and English, that the French officers will lead, if their soldiers will follow, and the English soldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This same principle of vanity is of admirable use to the government, because their lower ranks, when they see their superiors elated, as in the time of the last war with England, under the most disgraceful losses, never think that they are unfortunate; and from thence proceeds the passive submission of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent, as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious: but of all people in the world they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and instructive companion, and indeed the most rational species of all the French gentry.

The French are eminently distinguished by their politeness, and good manners, which may be traced, though in different proportions, through every rank, from the greatest of the nobility to the lowest mechanic: and it has been remarked as a very singular phenomenon, that politeness, which, in every other country, is confined to people of a certain rank in life, should here pervade every situation and profession. Indeed, the polished mildness of French manners, the gay and sociable turn of the nation, and the affable and easy conduct of masters to their servants, in some degree supply the deficiencies, and correct the errors of the government, and render the condition of the common people in France, but particularly at Paris, better than in several other countries of Europe.

The French have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge, that, as they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish to the ferocious manners, and even virtues of other nations. They have long possessed the lead in taste, fashion, and dress; but it seems now to be in the wane, and they themselves think very favourably of the English. This alteration of opinion has not, however entirely taken

its rise from their wits and learned men, and still less from their courtiers, or the middle ranks of life. The superior orders of men in France are of a very different cast from those below them. They see with indignation the frivolousness of their court; and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themselves sacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themselves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They saw during the war before the last, the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the peace of Fontainebleau, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it; and, what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and, to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal, and even a necessary study among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some striking peculiarities observable among that volatile people in private life, and this from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, who was also distinguished by various other productions in polite literature.

"The natural levity of the French, says he, is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is by some priest or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a complete connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his barber and valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself ne-

cessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs, on the face of the earth, a French *petit-maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petits-maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has descended, as I said before, to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

"I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *fard* and vermilion for very different purposes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not enquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner, as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly; and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The above picture of the manners of the French nation is drawn with wit and spirit, and is in some respects highly characteristic: but it is certainly not a flattering portrait; and the faults and failings of this vivacious people are, perhaps, by the author whom we have transcribed, too much magnified. With all their defects, the French have many good qualities, and are undoubtedly a very agreeable people to reside among, at least for a time; on account of the politeness of their manners, the great attention they pay to strangers, and the general taste for literature which prevails among those in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and dissipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taste and science, but they have considerable weight with respect to the manners and sentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and consequently are not without effect in the measures of government.

DRESS.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known, that it is needless to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the clothes of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one-third cheaper.

When a stranger arrives in Paris, he finds it necessary to send for the taylor, perquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the risk of his life, suit his clothes to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be ever so cold, he must wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-saison*, without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their sacks and negligees must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their taffeties for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, their sattins and damasks for the winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, with silk clothes for summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he must wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dress is absolutely indispensable for all those who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, use powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their superiors in the fopperies of fashion. The common people of the country, however, still retain, without any material deviation, the old-fashioned modes of dress, the large hat, and most enormous jackboots, with suitable spurs; and this contrast is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, physicians, and merchants, generally, dress in black; and it has been observed, that the French nation, in their modes, of dress, are in some measure governed by commercial circumstances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been so constant, that they have obtained the title of Most Christian; and the pope, in his bull, gives the king of France the title of Eldest Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to shake off the yoke of the popes, and made a very great progress in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the secret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jesuits; a set that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than some others from the papal authority, their church confining the pope's power entirely to things of an ecclesiastical nature, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and possessed as they are of immense property, there must be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any ecclesiastical reformation can take place; a prospect which seems at present to be yet too distant. In the southern parts of France, some of the clergy and magistrates are as intolerant as ever; and the persecutions of the protestants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in those provinces, continued till very lately. Since their alliance with America, the protestants have been more encouraged, and their assemblies for worship in many places not disturbed.* In short, the common people of France discover no disposition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, must probably be effected by the spirit of the parliaments. I shall not enter into the antiquated disputes between the Molinists and the Jansenists, or the different sects of Quietists and Bourignons, and others that prevail among the Roman Catholics themselves, or into the disputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about

* By a late edict of the king, toleration in matters of religion, &c. to a liberal extent, has been granted to the protestants.

the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown. The state of religion in France is a strong proof of the passive disposition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in compliance to the pope, have deprived their kingdom, as already hinted, of some of its most useful inhabitants. It must at the same time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they subsisted in a manner as a separate state within France, shewed some dispositions not very favourable to that despotic system of government which is established in the kingdom; and on some occasions they did not display much moderation in matters of religion; but, in general, their opposition to the rulers and court, proceeded from repeated attacks on their liberties, and the persecutions they suffered.

ARCHBISHOPS, BISHOPS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbishops, 113 bishops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, besides a great number of lesser convents, and 250 commanderies, of the order of Malta; but many of the abbies and nunneries have been lately suppressed, and the revenues seized by the king. The ecclesiastics of all sorts are computed at near 200,000, and their revenues at about six millions sterling. The king nominates all archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years since, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to ascertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the usual free gift, which they pay every five years. This demand is often repeated in a time of war.

The archbishop of Lyons is count and primate of France. The archbishop of Sens is primate of France and Germany. The archbishop of Paris is duke and peer of the realm; and the archbishop of Rheims is duke and peer, and legate of the holy see.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far, as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues; a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language, at present, is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner stones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were loosened; and in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the modern French abandon that grammatical standard, which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the proprieties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English; but they are well adapted to the passions, and are void of elevation or passion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Père qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous délivre du mal: car à toi est le regne, la puissance, & la gloire aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of

the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budeus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens, are also mentioned by every real scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Académie Françoisse was formed for this purpose; and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The Academy published a dictionary for improving the French language: it was universally despised. Furetiere, a single academician, publishes another: it meets with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000*l.* per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises, upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation: the first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire and in criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, and that the court and ministry, who have an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government however despotic, no religion however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise: and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, there have lately several writers appeared in France, whose writings have breathed such senti-

ments of liberty, as were not very well accommodated to the arbitrary government under which they live; and these sentiments seem much to increase among the men of letters, and persons in the higher classes of life: but the lower people in France, being less enlightened, and long habituated to despotic power, seem too well adapted for the yoke of slavery.

In the *Belles Lettres* and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, Voltaire and Marmontel, as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many of the present age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have almost vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his *Natural History* is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe: Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for surpassing them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French have now finished the *Encyclopédie*, or general dictionary of arts and sciences, which was drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (six of which are copper-plates), under the direction of Messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the most complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions have received a loss for the present by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France; but as the extinction of this body of men will probably lessen the influence of superstition in France, there is reason to believe that the interests of real learning and science will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event. It is not within my plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-a-Mousson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournoise, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French Academy, that of Inscriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse, and other military exercises.

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } of more valuable remains of antiquity than
 France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vast delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nîmes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nîmes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster-bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all streams will rise as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nîmes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the *Maison Quarrée*. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant; and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or *Thermæ*, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, besides the neighbourhood of Nîmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's contumace, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned several remarkable springs and mountains, which may be considered as natural curiosities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been also before noticed. There are some subterraneous passages and holes, especially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Niont in Dauphiny, really stupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous in France; of which we shall mention only Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and Toulon.

Lille, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish, but is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers, and may now, by an article in the last treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French ministry may please. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this point; particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, is amazing; and many of the poorer sort will not afford the small expence of such a registering. Another peculiarity existing in London is, that most of the Londoners, who will afford the expence, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far short of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous parishes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are shewy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelines* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elsewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for the invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing

* One *Goblet*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London: it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort: over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily, from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is said disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with tester and curtains; but beds are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor during the excessive heat in the summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; nor has their government made the provisions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention seeming to be directed to the conveniency and splendour of the great. The shopkeepers and tradesmen, an indolent, loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, silk night-gown, and Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, the invincible force of their armies, and the splendour of the grand monarch. The Parisians however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, meet with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot; so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at

the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but for the same reason, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works, (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, and academy for sea-affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. inasmuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy-royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular storehouse for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone, is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance which is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the most respectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already enumerated her natural commodities; to which may be added, her manufactures of salt-petre, silk, embroidery, silver, stuffs, tapestry, cambricks, lawns, fine laces, fine serges and stuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy, which is distilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are smuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be now little inferior to those of England and Holland, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

Besides the infinite advantage arising to her inland commerce, from her rivers and navigable canals, her foreign trade may be said to extend itself all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the late peace. But the most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West Indies which she possesses by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West Indies she likewise possesses the most important sugar islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, Desada, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North America, are only a small tract upon the Mississippi. The French possessions in the East Indies, are not very considerable; though had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English. At present (says Mr. Anderson), 'her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasburgh—To the Netherlands, through Lisle—To Spain (a most profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for the naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa has long been very considerable.'

The West India islands produce annually, on an average, Sugar, 224,000,000 lbs.—Coffee, 62,000,000 lbs.—Cotton, 7,700,000 lbs.—Indigo, 2,200,000 lbs, with many other articles. Total value of West-India products, 190,000,000 livres, or 8,636,000l. Sterling, on which there is a duty received of 9,000,000 livres, or 400,000l. Sterling. France exports to the amount of 102,000,000 livres, which deducted from 190,000,000 livres, (the whole value) leaves 88,000,000 livres, or 400,000l. sterling for home consumption.

The Newfoundland Fisheries employ annually 264 ships, containing 27,439 tons, and 9,403 men. Total value of the Fishery, 6,000,000 livres, or 270,000l. Sterling.

The East-India importation is valued at 18,000,000 livres, or 800,000l. Sterling.

Total Exports of France	332,000,000 livres, or £. 15,000,000 Sterling
Imports	256,000,000 livres, or £. 11,640,000

Balance in favor of France £. 3,360,000 Sterling.*

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profession of a merchant is not so honourable as in England and some other countries, so that the French nobility think it below them; which is the reason that the church, the law, and the army, are so full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces; which must be very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

* These articles of information are extracted from the accounts to which the Publisher of this Edition has so frequently acknowledged himself indebted.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The institutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the East and West Indies, formerly cost the French crown immense sums; but we know none of them now subsisting, though no doubt their West India trade, which is still very considerable, especially in sugar, is under proper regulations, prescribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The constitution of France, in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy; but the oppressions of the great landholders, by degrees, grew so irksome to the subjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the aristocratical government. Aristocracy, however, still subsisted in some degree to the beginning of the last century, chiefly through the necessity which the Hugonots or protestants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but Richlieu in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow; and all the civil disputes in France since, have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments; but the latter were seldom or never attended with any sanguinary effects.

The present parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great Britain. It was originally instituted to serve as a kind of law assistant to the assembly of the states, which was composed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom; and ever since it continued to be a law, and at last a money court; and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till registered by them. His most Christian Majesty has often tried to invalidate their acts, and to intimidate their persons; but, despotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther punishment than a slight banishment, or imprisonment, for their most provoking acts of disobedience.

This ridiculous situation between power and privilege, shews the infirmity of the French constitution, as the king dares not punish, and his parliament will not obey; but it discovers at the same time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian against the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a superintendant, who pretty much resembles the lord-lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extensive. Distributive justice in France is administered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen; those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Besançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments, however, are now united in one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national business. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civile judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminelle, receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Beside these three capital chambers, there are five of requests, for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes, pretty much in the same manner as our bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France is the chamber of accounts; where all matters of public finances are examined, treaties of peace and grants registered, and the vassalages due from the royal fiefs are received. The chambers are in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpellier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Lisle, Aire, and Dole.

The third court of judicature is the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raising of money, are determined.

The fourth are the presidial courts, which are composed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magistrates of little towns and villages.

The next court are the generalities, who proportion the taxes to be raised in their districts, according to the sum that is appointed to be levied. They likewise take cognisance of matters relating to the crown-lands, and certain branches of the revenue. These courts are in number twenty-three, each consisting of twenty-three persons; and they are distributed over the kingdom for the more convenient dispatch of business.

Subject to these generalities, are the courts of elections, which settle the smaller proportions of taxes that are to be paid by parishes and inferior districts, and how much each individual in the same is to pay. This is done by a collector, who returns the assessments to the court of generalities. Besides the above courts, the French have intendants of justice, police, and finances, whose powers, when properly executed, are of great service to the peace of the community. They have likewise provosts, senescals, bailiffs, and other officers, whom we have no room to enumerate.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, and shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not raised with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a sacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corsica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wisdom or humanity; for while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their own country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond descrip-

tion; and the passengers, who saunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, appear to be chiefly composed of priests and devotees passing to or from mass, hair-dressers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention a people more indigent than these citizens, we might describe the farmers and peasantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist upon the gleanings, and his cattle, which are seldom numerous, pick a subsistence, in the summer months, from the skirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, dispirited, and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of indigence hardly credible: and to see him plowing the ground with a lean cow, ass, and a goat yoked together, excites in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the best bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and these harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no scruple of fleecing the people most unmercifully; and the residue, if any do remain, goes to satisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immense sums, under the names of tenths and free-gifts, exclusive of which, they are now taxed with a certain sum, to be paid annually.

REVENUES.] In 1716, the whole specie of France, in gold and silver, was computed to be about seventeen millions sterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions sterling, or 2000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almost all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raising or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France published a general state of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king scarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery; we can form no idea but that of despotism, of the means by which so great a reduction was effected. The French court has not since that time blushed to own, as towards the conclusion of the former war, and also in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his ministers have pursued measures pretty much similar to those practised by the regent, to recruit the royal finances.

The following state of the revenues and expences of France for 1787 is extracted from an account printed by order of the king.

R E V E N U E.		EXPENCES OF GOVERNMENT.	
	Livres.		Livres.
General	— 574,000,000	Interest of National Debt	211,000,000
Particular	— 32,000,000	Army and Ordnance	105,000,000
Islands	—	Navy	45,200,000
Dominique	— 6,940,000	Pensions	26,000,000
Martinique	— 1,100,000	Sundries, viz. encouragement	—
Guadeloupe	— 900,000	of Commerce, Agriculture,	—
Cayenne	— 60,000	&c. &c.	317,800,000
Total	615,000,000	Total	735,000,000
Or, £ 28,000,000 Sterling.		Or, £ 33,400,000 Sterling.	

From this account it appears, that the revenue of France amounted in the year 1787, to 28,000,000l. sterling, (allowing 22 livres to the pound sterling) and the expences were 33,400,000l. sterling, of which 9,590,000l. is the interest of national debt, so that the expences exceeded the national income by 5,454,000l. The collection of this revenue cost 2,700,000l. which is at the rate of about 10½ per cent.

[MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better understood than in France. Besides other methods for cultivating it, there is a royal military academy established purposely for training up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the several branches of this great art. In time of peace the crown of France maintains 228,497 men, but at a very small comparative expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two-pence halfpenny per day. In a time of war 400,000 have been brought into the field; but those that are raised from the militia are very indifferent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ships of the line, which was almost equal to the marine force of all Europe besides. The French have, however, at sea been generally defeated by the English. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it was long before it recovered. The late king Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-establishing his navy; but his officers and seamen were so much inferior to those of England, that he seemed during the war of 1756, to have built ships of force for the service of Great Britain, so frequent were the captures made by the English. However, after the commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and France, on account of the conduct of the latter in assisting the revolted American colonies, it has appeared that the French navy is become more formidable than at any preceding period, their ministry having exerted their utmost efforts to establish a powerful marine. According to the account printed by order of the king, the navy of France in the year 1787, consisted of 72 ships of the line, of which 2 are of 120 guns,—4 of 110,—7 of 80,—44 of 74,—10 of 64,—and 5 of 50. There are 63 frigates, 36 corvettes, 18 cutters, 10 luggers, 4 chebecs, 4 bomb-ketches, and 54 store-ships.

[ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY] The title assumed by the French king is, simply, king of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Most Christian Majesty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, supported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the same arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent*.

About the year 1349, Hubert, the last count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occasion of his son's death, annexed that county to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldest son of France should be, for the time to come, styled Dauphin.

The French nobility are of four kinds; first, the princes of the blood; secondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or those made in the present reign. The first prince of the blood is the person who stands next to the crown after the king's sons. The knights of the Holy Ghost are ranked among the higher nobility; as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are three orders; first, that "of St. Michael," instituted in 1469 by Louis XI. and though originally composed only of thirty-six knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred. It is fallen into disrepute, being conferred on artists, physicians, magistrates, &c. they wear a black watered ribband fastenings over the right shoulder, to which is pendant a medallion of the same figure, with that described in the order of the Holy Ghost, enamelled green. Their badge is a golden oval medallion, in which is St. Michael trampling the dragon under his feet. A person must be a knight of this order before he can enter into the second, "of the Holy Ghost," which was founded in 1579 by Henry III. and is composed of a hundred persons, exclusive of the sovereign, and conferred only on princes of the

blood, and persons of the highest rank. All are to be Catholics, and, except the 14 commanders, which consist of Cardinals, Prelates, and the officers of the order, are all to prove the nobility of their descent for above 100 years. The Dauphin is received into both orders on the day of his birth. The badge is a silver star or cross of eight points, with a fleur de lis at each angle, and a dove, the emblem of the Holy Ghost, in the centre, embroidered on the left side of the outer garment as the star of our knights of the Garter is, and a sky-blue watered riband fast-ways, over the right shoulder, to which is pendent a medallion of the figure of the star, enamelled white, with fleurs de lis, or, at the great angles, having a dove on one side, and St. Michael with the dragon on the other. *Third*, the order "*of St. Louis*," which was instituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almost every officer, and even subalterns. The first class consists of 40 knights, who are styled *Chevaliers Grand Croix*, and they wear a star, with the badge on the left side of their garment: the second class are 80, in number, styled *Chevaliers Commandeurs*, &c. but have no star: the third class is unlimited, and who wear the badge at the button-hole of their coat; the badge is the image of St. Louis in armour, holding in his left hand a crown of thorns, and in his right a crown of laurel, with the inscription *Ludovicus Magnus instituit anno 1693*; on the reverse, a sword erect, the point through a chaplet of laurel, bound with a white riband, enamelled with this motto, *Bellica virtutis præmium*. The knights of the first two classes have pensions, and the order gives them the privileges of the *Noblesse*, but doth not ennoble the family. As of this order all must be Catholics, Lewis XV. instituted the order of *Military Merit* in the year 1759, in favour of the protestant officers of foreign regiments in the service of France. In all other respects the statutes are the same with those of the order of St. Louis. There are two *Chevaliers Grand Croix*, four of the second class, and an unlimited number of ordinary knights. The badge of the order is a cross of eight points, enamelled white, on the one side a sword in pale, with the motto, *Pro virtute bellica*, and on the reverse a chaplet of laurel within this inscription, *Ludovicus XV. instituit anno 1759*. The order of *St. Lazare*, revived by Henry IV. in 1607, and united to that of *Notre Dame de Mont Carmel*, hath fallen into disrepute, but still continues, and consists of 100 knights under a Grand Master: the badge is a cross of eight points, in the angles four fleurs de lis, with the Virgin Mary and her child Jesus in the centre of it.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a British reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called *Transalpine Gaul*, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from *Cisalpine Gaul*, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the *Salii*, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These *Salii* had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptized, and introduced Christianity in the year 496: from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects: in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown: Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disobliterated the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who

joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the Emperor; and he died in 1547.

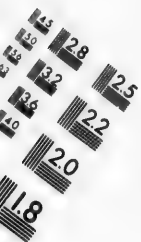
France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was succeeded by his son Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catherine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each other. At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is said that about 30,000 Protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with some difficulty escaped to France where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.





Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the Protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretensions. To secure himself on the throne, a seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the Protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he, and his brother the cardinal were, by his majesty's orders, and in a manner under his eye, basely assassinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from the cell the decrepit popish cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessities. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, were divided among themselves; and the French nation in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman Catholic. This was called a measure of prudence if not of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen, of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593 Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortune. In 1598 he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with wonderful attention and success (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully), to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravillac, like Clement, another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richlieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France and to the religious establishments of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed, during their continuance.

Richlieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had turned Roman Catholic. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on

the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have more than once mentioned, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a surprising height.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter, he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragging the protestants that followed it, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his convenience, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and of the Austrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English Tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years; for he died on the first of September 1715, and was succeeded by his great-grandson, Lewis XV. the late king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already seen in what manner he discharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent on the fifth of December, in 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to imagine that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconsistent scenes of fighting and treating with the several powers of Europe, which are to be found in their respective histories. Among the first acts of the late king's government, was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which the latter was so ill seconded by her allies, that it was finished by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

The present king, Lewis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations have taken place, since his accession, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the mousquetaires, and some other corps, which, being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person than any real military service, were supported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the state. But one of the most remarkable circumstances which attended the present reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a Protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department in the revenue. When hostilities commenced between France and Great Britain, in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies, in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his oeconomy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national oeconomy, the navy of France has also been raised to so great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the king and queen were abolished; and sundry other important regulations adopted, for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. He changed the excess of disbursements at least one million sterling, of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000*l*. But the measures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient frankness of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party. His removal, however pernicious to France, is probably a favourable circumstance for Great Britain, as national oeconomy, and wise counsels, must naturally render the former a more dangerous enemy to the latter.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the last and present centuries, no object appears of more consequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the channel. With a view of obviating this want, the king and ministry of France have taken up this important object with the greatest zeal and vigour; and having employed the ablest engineers in that kingdom, have proceeded by the most astonishing and stupendous works to render the port of Cherbourg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the last peace they have prosecuted this work, at an annual expence of upwards of 200,000*l*. and expectation is so sanguine, that it is thought a year or two more will effect this arduous and important undertaking.

The policy of the French government which has led it to the standards of liberty in America and Holland, has excited a spirit amongst the people of that nation, which does not coalesce with the continuance of arbitrary power at home; and the assembly of the Notables has been so flattered to the prevailing ideas of liberty amongst that acute and sensible people, that their requisitions for the complete restoration of the ancient constitution may become highly alarming to the ruling power. Their success in such a pursuit should be an object to every citizen of the world, who wishes for an equal distribution of the rights of civil society, but how at the present disorders in that kingdom tend to such a revolution is difficult to ascertain, from the limited materials here to form such a judgment on.

Lewis XVI. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1754, succeeded his grandfather Lewis XV. in 1774, married, 1770, to Maria Antonietta, sister of the emperor of Germany, born 1755. Their issue are Madame Maria Theresa Charlotte, born on the 19th of December 1778; and Lewis-Joseph-Xavier-Francis, dauphin of France, born October 22, 1781.

His majesty's brothers and sisters are,

1. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
2. Charles Philip, count d'Artois, born 1757.
3. Maria Adelaide Clotilde Xaveria, born 1759.
4. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Jelena, born 1764.

Issue of Lewis XV. now living, are,

1. Maria Adelaide, duchess of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louisa Maria Theresa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Philippina Elizabeth Justina, born 1734.
4. Louisa Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.

N E T H E R L A N D S.

THE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect of Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 360 } between { 49 and 54 North lat.
Breadth 260 } { 2 and 7 East lon.

They are bounded by the German sea on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the British channel, West.

I shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: first, the *Northern*, which contains the seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of *HOLLAND*: secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian, and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overijssel, Zeland, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150 }
Breadth nearly } between { 51 and 54 North lat.
the same { 3 and 7 East lon.

The following is the most satisfactory account we meet with of their geographical division including the Texel, and other islands.

Counties Names		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
United Provinces.					
Calvinia.	Overijssel	1,900	66	50	Deventer
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen
	Friesland	810	44	34	Leeuwarden
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
Texel and other islands		112			
Total—		7,546			

The subdivisions of the United Provinces, with their chief towns, have also been given in the following manner:

Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.	Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.
1. Holland.	South Hol-land.	Amsterdam Rotterdam Delft Hague Haerlem Leyden Dort Williamstadt Naerden Gorcum Heusden	1. Holland.	North Holland	Saardam Edam Hoorn Euchusen Alkemaer Monckdam Puermerent
				Voorn Islemond Gorce Overflake Texel Vlie Schelling	Briel Helvoetfluyts Gorce Somerdyke Burg Two Villages Five Villages
2. Islands of Zealand.	Walchern	Middleburg Flushing Terveer Rammekins Zuricksee	5. Overijssel E. of the Zuider sea.	Iseland	Daventeer Zwoll
	Schowen	Brewerhaven		The Drente	Covardam Otmarsea
3. Friesland N. E. of Holland.	N. Beveland	Tolan	6. Gelderland and Zutphen, S. E. of Holland.	Velew	Anheim Loo palace Hardewick
	S. Beveland	Cats		Betwe, olim, Batavia	Nimeguen Skenkenf- chans Bommel
4. Gronin- gen N. E. of Holland.	Westergoe	Lewarden Dockum Franger Harlingen	Zutphen	Zutphen	Zutphen Doelburgh Groll
	Sevenwolden	Sloot		Gelder quarter	Gelder Venlo
		Groningen	The town of Gelder is subject to Prussia, & hath been since 1713.		
		The Omlands			

7. UTRECHT in the Middle.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
On the old channel of the Rhine	Utrecht
North of the Old Rhine	Amerfort
South of the Old Rhine	Duistardwyck.

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE } OF THE COUNTRY. These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised and still support with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and the brightness and cleanliness in their houses so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country serve as high-roads, are in the summer months no better than offensive stagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best, are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs and marshes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and indeed most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. The river-fish is much the same as ours, but their sea-fish is generally large, owing perhaps to their fishing in deeper water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all these inconveniencies, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers) as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVISIONS. The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages and about two millions of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or

conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands*. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring-fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle; for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake; witness their sea wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit, and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unfociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tipping and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of

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* Mons. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland at 2,500,000, but Mr. Templeman estimates them only 2,000,000, which in proportion to the populousness of England, is more than six to one, considering the extent of the country. Holland is also reckoned to have as many souls as the other six provinces, which if true the people of the seven provinces with their appendages must be very numerous.

expences should equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think at least they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, such as no other country does experience, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of English and French dressing and living; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seemed to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the Jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongst the sea-faring people.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Presbyterian and Calvinism; none but Presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the Catholics and Jews are very nume-

rous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in the greatest harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and enquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupt dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus *Onse Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uwen naam words gebeylight: uw koninkryk kome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel-zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons beeden ende vergeeft onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldnaaren: ende en laet ons niet in vafser kingemaer verloft on van der boofden.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is possessed of some political abilities, and about the year 1747 published poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly because their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the united Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, has two thousand oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large sphere adapted to the Copernican system, and moving by clock-work. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht, in the province of the same name, was changed from a school into an university, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

The number of students, one year with another, is seven or eight hundred in each of the universities of Leyden and Utrecht: in the other three, which are less

celebrated, they are not so numerous. These seminaries of learning have each three or four divinity professors, as many of physic, and two or three of law; besides others of history, languages, and eloquence, or the *belles lettres*; and others of philosophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The professors in the universities of Holland are often men of great learning and eminence; as there is a kind of emulation between the states of the different provinces, which shall have the greatest men to adorn their universities, and attract numbers of students from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns: and, therefore, they are ready to afford very liberal encouragement to able professors, who are often invited from the universities of Germany.

The buildings of these universities are old, and rather mean; though the schools of Leyden are better, and more contiguous than the rest. But the want of external pomp is more than compensated by the variety of useful and solid learning taught in their seminaries. The professors wear gowns when they read lectures, or preside in public disputations. The students wear no distinct habits, but are almost always in their morning-gowns, in which they attend the colleges; and it is common for them, at Leyden, to walk in this dress in the streets and mall without the city. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature: and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expences, or so much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities: for frugality in expence, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue among them, soon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here, with as little scruple as protestants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The prodigious dykes, some of which are
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } said to be 17 ells in thickness; mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupendous and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Russia, who swallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is said to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his stomach; but the truth of this seems to be doubtful. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and tendons of the human body curiously set up, by professor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDI- } Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of
FICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are ad-

mirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages; bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000: it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured, as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelde.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND
MANNER OF TRAVELLING.

The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called treck-scoits, which are dragged along the canals by horses, on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals, an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany, and the Austrian and French Netherlands. A treck-scoit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses, and languages. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time in these little temples, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this, they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and above all, by the water-carriage; which by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their East India company have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and till the late war with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any independence on the mother-country. They have other settlements in India, but none more pleasant, healthful, or useful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men,

the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberless branches of trade; such as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of their coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East India trade; and their general industry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are in the same flourishing state now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants. Their commerce hath greatly suffered since the rupture with England.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the capital is the East India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, having divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1763, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West India company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam is thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is said by Sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth somewhat more than current cash is, in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the stadthouse, amount to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces subsist in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or constitution independent of the others: this government is called the *states* of that province; and the delegates from them form the *states general*, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested; but though a province should send two, or more delegates, yet such province has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The *council of state* consists likewise of deputies from the several provinces: but its constitution is different from that of the states-general: it is composed of twelve persons, whereof Gelderland sends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overijssel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but personally. Their business is to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the states-general. The states of the provinces are stiled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but those of Holland, "Noble and Most Mighty Lords," and the states-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "the Lords the

19 will shew 0.7.2 (in the ... from ... 1810 ... own

States-General of the United Netherlands;" or, "their High Mightinesses." Subordinate to these two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chusing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy is lodged in thirty-six senators, who are chosen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elects the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, because, without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces, from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner supersedes the constitution already described. The stadtholder is president of the states of every province; and such is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he has no voice in it; in short, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than some kings; for besides the influence and revenue he derives from the stadtholdership, he has several principalities and large estates of his own. The present stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the late stadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland is a republic, yet its government is far from being of the popular kind; nor do the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It is indeed, rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people are not suffered to have the least share in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be observed, that very few persons in this state dare speak their real sentiments freely; and they are generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they cannot relinquish them when they enter more into public life.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is no where distributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces is said to contribute toward the public expence:

Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overijssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the Province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnishes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy,

96 million sterling? ...

and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are exceedingly low. Holland before the breach with England, was in a very flourishing condition, and at this very time, they lend large sums to most of the powers in Europe. The immense sums in the British funds have given reason for some people to imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reason is, the states only pay two and a half per cent. interest for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace, commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom serve in garrisons; many of them are Scots and Swiss; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field-marshal general. The marine force of the United Provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. According to the last accounts, their navy consists of one ship of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, besides vessels of inferior force. But they have many ships upon the stocks, and their fleet will probably be much augmented, and in future be kept in better order.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the most powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the first for Catholics, and the second branch for Protestants. This branch have a house at Utrecht, where they transact their business. The nobles of Holland, if they propose a son to be a knight, enter his name in the register, and pay a large sum of money to the use of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate succeeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's side. The ensign is a cross pattie, enamelled white, surmounted with another, black; above the cross is a ball twisted, white and black. It is worn pendent to a broad black watered riband, which is worn about the neck. The same cross is embroidered on the left breast of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlass, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in allusion to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ crescunt*.

HISTORY.] See the Austrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married in 1767 the princess Frederica of Prussia, born 1751. Their children are, Frederick Louisa, born 1770—William Frederic, Hereditary Prince, born 1772—William George, born 1774.—The Stadtholder hath one sister, Wilhelmina Carolina, born 1743, and married to the prince of Nassau Wielburgh.

→ Married to Prince of Nassau
 Died 1799

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 200	} between { 49 and 52 north latitude. 2 and 7 east longitude.
Breadth 200	

BOUNDARIES. } **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, West.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Dutch Brabant	{ Boileduc } N.
	{ Breda } N.
	{ Bergen-op-Zoom } N. W.
	{ Grave, N. E. } N. W.
2. Austrian Brabant	{ Lillo } N. W.
	{ Steenberg } N. W.
	{ Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50. }
	{ Louvain } in the middle.
	{ Vilvorden } in the middle.
	{ Landen } in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns	Chief Towns.
{	{ Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37 subject to Austria.
	{ Maastricht }
	{ Dalem }
	{ Fauquemont, or Valkenburg }
	{ subject to the Dutch.

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Austrian Luxembourg	{ Luxembourg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45. }
French Luxembourg	{ Thionville } S. E.
	{ Montmedy }

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns	Chief Towns.
{	{ Namur, on the Sambre and Masse, E. lon. 4-50. }
	{ N. lat. 50-30. }
	{ Charleroy on the Sambre.

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Austrian Hainault	{ Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30. }
	{ Aeth } in the middle.
	{ Enguion }

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
French Mainault	{ Valenciennes Bouchain Condé } s. w.
	{ Landrecy }

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	{ Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.
	{ Crevecour, S. of Cambray.

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	{ Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20.
	{ St. Omer, E. of Boulogne.
	{ Aire, S. of St. Omer
	{ S. Venant, E. of Aire
	{ Bethune, S. E. of Aire
	{ Téroüen, S. of St. Omer

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N.
	Ghent, on the Scheld, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51.
	Bruges
	Ostend } N. W. near the sea.
	Newport
Austrian Flanders	Oudenard on the Scheld.
	Courtray } on the Lis.
	Dixmude }
	Ypres, N. of Lille
	Tournay on the Scheld
	Menin on the Lis
	Lille, W. of Tournay
French Flanders	Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais
	Douay, W. of Arras
	Mardike, W. of Dunkirk
	St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes
	Graveling, E. of Calais

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Eender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead and brimstone, are found in Luxemburgh, and Limburg, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, Malines or Mechlin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.} The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.} Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES. This article has employed several large volumes published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner void. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders; and soon after the late rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781 it was visited by the emperor, who granted to it many

privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufactures; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread lace-shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty, but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *château*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade, by the rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, reasonable, and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. At Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty-two towns, itself being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at present, is his serene highness prince Charles of Lorraine, brother to the late, and uncle to the present emperor. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor seldom or never finds any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent: and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] These rise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garrisons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet

both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. But the present emperor hath demolished the fortifications of most of the places, and rendered the garrisons useless.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion sable, and langued gules.

HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called Belgicæ Galliæ by the Romans. About a century before the Christian æra, the Battæ removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France; and other parts of the Roman empire; and after being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions. Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At last they were swallowed up by the house of Burgundy, anno 1433. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them in the year 1477 to the house of Austria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son Philip, who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn, and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, in order to suppress them; and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revoltors at first were thought so despicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of **THE UNITED PROVINCES**. By their sea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell and Charles II. they justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 hath been discussed in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed.

By the war, their trade suffered considerably, but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, is the only place not restored to them by the late peace.

At this time the influence of France through most of the provinces, produced a treaty of alliance with that nation, in opposition to that subsisting with Great Britain, their connection with whom they now openly abandoned, though their longest and most steady ally.—This treaty with France was believed to be unfinished rather in form than in substance.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britain may be attributed the claims of the emperor of Germany on the navigation of the Scheldt.—These claims were supported for a time with every appearance that could indicate the determination of the emperor to maintain them: large bodies of Imperialists marched towards the Netherlands, some small skirmishes took place, and in November 1784, the commanding officer at Lillo ordered the sluices to be opened, by which several miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt were laid under water.—The mediation of France and her hostile preparations in favour of her new ally at length produced a reconciliation, in which the emperor with as much facility relinquished, as he had a short time before pursued, his claims upon the Dutch.

The ill success of the last war with Great Britain, being generally attributed to the criminal supineness of the Prince of Orange, and his secret attachment to that nation, produced the most bitter investigations against him throughout the provinces, and also against Louis, prince of Brunswick, the general of their forces; whose influence over the stadtholder was said to be employed against the true interests of the republic.—These were the sentiments of a large portion of the mercantile body, particularly in the province of Holland, but the great mass of the people seemed to be in favour of the prince.—The proceedings, however, against the Prince of Brunswick were so direct and untemperish, that he thought proper to retire, being in effect dismissed from all his employments under the states.

The object of the French faction (as it was called) did not stop here: they proceeded to the abolition of the office of stadtholder, or the stripping it of many of those prerogatives which were formerly thought to be inseparably annexed to the office. The court of Great Britain was alarmed at their progress; and the interference of the king of Prussia was roused by the influence of the Princess of Orange (his sister), but more, perhaps, by a sense of the balance of power which would be thrown into the hands of France, by the accession of Holland to her interests and her views. The interposition of that power was now arrested by the vigour and promptitude of the British court, seconded by the King of Prussia, who marched a numerous army into the Netherlands under the command of the Duke of Brunswick, which soon over-run the country, with little effectual opposition, to the gates of Amsterdam. The celebrity and decision of this movement, struck universal panick amongst the opponents of the stadtholder. The Orange party co operating with the Prussians suppressed all impediments to the restoration of his power; the boasting menaces of the French faction were silenced, and many of its leaders fled, from an apprehension of persecution from the prevailing party. The court of France was applied to in vain for promised succours, and silently looked on, an indifferent spectator, to the destruction of those plans which she had formed in that country:—probably her own internal dissensions (as much as other causes) obliged her to look nearer home, and desert the cause of her new ally.

How long the present quiet may prevail in Holland is difficult to determine, especially as the animosity of the opposite factions is thought to be rather silenced than eradicated.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 520 }	between { 5 and 19 East long. { 45 and 55 North lat.	181,631

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maese.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I shall therefore adhere to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles	—	—	{ Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia
The circles in the middle	—	—	{ Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The southern circles	—	—	{ Austria Bavaria Swabia

I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania, in the North.	{ Prussia Pomerania, N. E. Swedish Pomerania, N. W.	{ Stettin, E. lon. 14-50 N. lat. 53-30. Stralsund	{ 4820 2991
Brandenburg in the middle, sub. to its own elector the K. of Prussia.	{ Altmark, west Middlemark Newark, east.	{ Stendel Berlin, Potsdam Frankfort, Custria.	{ 16910
Saxony, Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector.	{ Dutchy of Saxony, N. Lusatia, marg. east. Misnia, marg. south.	{ Wittenberg Bautzen, Gorlitz Dresden, E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51. Meissen,	{ 7500 3620
Thuringia, langr. west	—	Erfurt	3620
The Duchies of —	{ Saxe Meinungen — Saxe Zeitz — Saxe Altenburg, S. E. — Saxe Weimar, west — Saxe Gotha, west — Saxe Eimach, S. W. — Saxe Saalfeldt —	{ Subject to their own dukes. Meinungen Zeitz Altenburg Weimar Gotha Eimach Saalfeldt.	{ 240 1500
The counties of —	{ Schwartzburg, W. — Belchingen, N. — Mansfeldt, N. —	{ Subject to their respective counts. Schwartzburg Belchingen Mansfeldt.	{ 96 *
The duchies of —	{ Hall, middle, subject to Prussia Saxe Naumburg, subject to its own duke	{ Hall Naumburg	{ 210

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The counties of	{ Stolberg, north-west Hohenstein, west	{ Stolberg Northhausen	966
Principality of	— Anhalt, north —	{ Dessau, Zerbst Bernburg, Kothen.	
Bishopric of	— Saxe Hall west Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony	{ Hall Plawen.	696
Duchy of	— { Merzburg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony	{ Merzburg.	336

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Holstein, north of the Elbe.	{ Holstein Proper, N. Ditmarch, west Stormaria, south Hamburg, a sove- reign state Wagerland, east	{ Partly sub. to Den- mark, and partly to the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp	{ Kiel, sub. to Holstein Gottorp. Meldorp } subject to Gluckstadt } Denmark. Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city. Lubeck, an imperial city.	1850
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, subject to	Hanover		Lauenburg.	450
Subject to the duke of Brunswick Wol- fenbottle.	{ D. Brunswic Proper. D. Wolfenbottle C. Rheinstein, south C. Blanckenburg	{ middle	{ Brunswic, E. L. 10-30. N. Lat. 52-30. Wolfenbottle Rheinstein Blanckenburg	860
Subject to the elector of Hanover, K. of G. Britain.	{ D. Calenberg D. Grubenhagen Gottingen		{ Hanover Grubenhagen Gottingen Luneburg	8024
Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover.	{ D. of Luneburg Proper D. Zell		{ Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 52 52.	
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north		{ Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat 53-30 an im- perial city. Verden.		2040 693
Mecklenburg D.	{ D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke D. Gultrow, north, subject to its duke		{ Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. Gultrow.	4400
Hildersheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop			{ Hildersheim, an impe- rial city.	1302
Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia			{ Magdeburg.	1535
Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east			{ Halberstadt.	450

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

North Division.	{ Embden, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the K. Delmenhurst } of Den. Hoye } subject to Han- Diepholt, } over	{ Embden, an imperial city. Oldeburgh Delmenhurst Hoye Diepholt	720 624 220
Western Division.	{ Munster B. sub. to its bishop Paderborn B. sub. to its bishop Osnaburg B. sub. to its bishop Lippe C. sub. to its count. Minden D. Ravensberg C. } sub. to Pruf. Westphalia D. sub. to the elec- tor of Cologne	{ Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52. Paderborn Osnaburg Lippe, Pymont Minden Ravensberg Arensburg	3600 800 870 400 595 525 1444

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Western Division.	Tecklenburg C. } sub. to their	Tecklenburg	840
	Ritberg C. } respective	Ritberg	120
	Schawenburg C. } counts.	Schawenburg	
Middle Division.	Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia	Cleves, E. lon. 5-36. N. } lat. 51-40.	630
	Berg D. } sub. to the elector	Dusseldorf	
	Juliers D. } Palatine.	Juliers, Aix	1300
	Mark C. subject to Prussia	Ham	980
	Liege B. sub. to its own bishop	Liege, E. lon. 5-56. N. } lat. 50-40.	1944
	Bentheim C. sub. to Hanover	Huy	418
	Steinfurt C. sub. to its count.	Bentheim	114
		Steinfurt	

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N.	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. } lat. 51-20.	3500
	Hesse Marpurgh, landg. N.	Marpurgh	
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg.	Darmstadt	396

Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.

Counties in the West- teraw south.	Hesse Homberg	Homburg	
	Hesse Rhinefeldt	Rhinefeldt	180
	Wonfeld.	Wonfeld:	
	Nassau Dillenburgh	Dillenburg	
	Nassau Diets	Diets	
	Nassau Hadamar	Hadamar	
	Nassau Kerberg	Kerberg	
	Nassau Siegen	Siegen	
	Nassau Idstein	Idstein	1200
	Nassau Weilburg	Weilburg	
Territory of Frankfurt, a sovereign state	Nassau Wisbaden	Wisbaden	
	Nassau Biehlsteid	Biehlsteid	
	Nassau Otweiler	Otweiler	
	Nassau Usingen	Usingen	
	Frankfort on the Maine. E. } lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10.		120
	an imperial city.		
	Erpach east.		230
	Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city.		245
	Deuxponte in the Palat.		700
	Catzenelbogen on the Lhon.		
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel	Waldec, sub. to its own count	Waldec	368
	Solms, sub. to its own count	Solms	
	Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel	Hanau	432
	Isenburg, sub. to its own C.	Isenburg	
Counties of —	Sayn	Sayn	
	Wied	Wied	
	Witgenstein	Witgenstein	
	Hatzfeld	Hatzfeld	
	Westerburg	Westerburg	
	Fulda	Fulda	621
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot	—	Hirschfeld.	
Hirschfeld,—subject to Hesse Cassel	—		

5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Palatine of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the Elector Palatine.	Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. } N. lat. 49-20.	2618
	Philipburg, Mannheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Archbishopsrics and Electorates of	Cologne	Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.	1964
	Ments	Bonn, on the Rhine.	
	Triers	Ments, on the Rhine, Afschaffenburg, on the Maine.	
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state	Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.	Triers, on the Moselle.	1763
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke	Simmeren.	Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.	154
Counties of	Rhinegravestein	Rhinegravestein	1645
	Meurs, subject to Prussia	Meurs	
	Veldents, subject to the Elec- tor Palatine	Veldentz	
	Spanheim Leyningen	Creutznaach Leyningen.	

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Bishoprics of	Würzburg, W.	Würzburg	1645
	Bamberg, N.	Bamberg	1700
	Aichstat, S.	Aichstat	513
Marquissates of	Cullenback, north-east	Cullenback	900
	Anspach, S. W.	Anspach	1000
Subdivisions.			
Principality of Henneberg, N.	—	Hennebergh.	
Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke	—	Coburg	406
Duchy of Hilburghaufen, subject to its duke	—	Hilburghaufen	
Burggrate of Nuremberg, S. E. an independent state	—	Nuremberg, an imperial city.	640
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order.	—	Mergentheim.	56
Counties of	Reineck, W.	Reineck	180
	Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar.	Bareith	
	Papenheim, S. f. to its own C.	Papenheim	
	Wertheim, W.	Wertheim	
	Cassel, middle	Cassel	
	Schwartzburg, subject to its own count	Schwartzburg middle	
	Holach, S. W.	Holach.	220

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the House of Austria.

	Divisions.	Chief towns.	
Archduchy of Austria Proper		Vienna E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20.	7160
		Linta, Ens, west.	
Duchies of	{ <div>Stiria and Cilley, C.</div> <div>Carinthia</div> <div>Carniola</div> <div>Goritia</div>	{ Gratz, Cilley, S. E.	5000
		{ Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E.	3000
		{ Laubach, Zerknitz, Trieste, St.	4576
		{ Veits, S. E.	
County of Tyrol	—	Gorits, S. E.	
Bishoprics of	{ <div>Brixen</div> <div>Trent</div>	{ Inspruck S. W. on the con-	3900
		{ Brixen fines of Italy and	1300
		{ Trent Switzerland.	200

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landshut, Ingoldstat, N. W. Donawert (Ratisbon, N. an imperial city.)	8500
Palatinate of Bavaria	Amberg (Sulzbach), N. of the Danube.	

We have received of November, the 100 millions to the alliance 700 millions of

of the ascending

Notes.
Bavaria
Netherlands
Württemberg
Baden
Saxony
Sardinia
Hesse Cassel
Hanover
Hesse Darmstadt
Mecklenburg
Nassau
Brunswick
Hans Towns
Saxe Gotha
Saxe Weimar
Anhalt
Oldenburg
Schwarzburg
Lippe
Hesse
Mecklenburg
Saxe Coburg
Waldeck
Frankfurt
Saxe Meiningen
Saxe Hildburgh
Hohenollern
Hohenzollern
Lichtenstein

N. B. We have

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Wick
Saxe
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Odis

We have received from Paris, under the date of the 10th of November, the following Table of the distribution of the 100 millions destined for those States who accede to the alliance against France, and forming part of the 700 millions of pecuniary indemnities.

p. 500

States of the according	Their Con- tributions	Share in the in- demnities, estimated at 425,000,000 francs, & a fraction per man.
Bavaria	60,000 men	25,517,798 francs.
Netherlands	30,000	12,758,899
Wurtemberg	20,000	8,505,933
Baden	16,000	6,804,746
Saxony	16,000	6,804,746
Sardinia	15,000	6,279,449
Hesse Cassel	12,000	5,103,559
Hanover	10,000	4,251,966
Hesse Darmstadt	8,000	3,402,373
Mecklenburg Schwerin	8,000	3,402,373
Prussia	8,000	3,402,373
Brunswick	7,000	2,975,889
Hans Towns	5,000	2,175,889
Saxe Gotha	2,000	855,658
Saxe Weimar	1,000	427,829
Anhalt	1,000	427,829
Oldenburg	1,000	427,829
Schwarzburg	1,000	427,829
Lippe	1,000	427,829
Hesse	900	382,706
Mecklenburg Stralitz	800	340,237
Saxe Coburg	800	340,237
Waldeck	800	340,237
Frankfurt	750	318,279
Saxe Meinungen	600	255,177
Saxe Illdurghausen	400	170,118
Hohenzollern Sigmaringen	300	127,589
Hohenzollern Hechingen	100	42,529
Lichtenstein	100	42,529

23,513,000 men 100,000,000 francs.

N. B. We have not given the column of contributions.

August 1810.

(for which see the annexed table.) This official statement having been given in, the President proposes, that, that it should be taken as the basis for five years provisionally (as originally proposed); and that a committee be appointed in time, to lay down the principles of a definitive matriculation, to be introduced at the expiration of those five years. The proposition being generally acceded to, the Saxon Ambassador only remarking, that on account of the extraordinary population of the dominions of his Majesty the King of Saxony, the money-contingent would be too high (if determined by this basis.

RESOLUTION.

1. The population stated by the Members of the Confederation is provisionally assumed for the next five years, as the matriculation of the Confederation, according to the provisionally existing order of voting in plebs, with the reserve of an ulterior determination for Hesse-Rhomburg.

2. The matriculation shall be the rule both for the contributions of troops and of money, with the sole exception of the expenses of the Chancery of the Confederation, which are provided for in a different manner.

3. The principles on which the definitive matriculation to be introduced after five years shall be founded, will be reported by a committee to be appointed for the purpose. The Diet will discuss it before the expiration of the five years, and agree in the final matriculation by an ulterior resolution.

Austria	29,423,067	Anhalt-Desmau	52,947
Prussia	1,923,430	Bernburg	37,040
Bavaria	3,500,000	Coeslin	38,454
Saxony	1,200,000	Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	33,037
Hanover	1,205,311	Hannover	45,117
Wurtemberg	1,205,403	Rudolstadt	33,037
Baden	1,000,000	Hohenzollern-Hechingen	17,300
Electorate of Hesse	440,000	Lichtenstein	42,529
Grand Duchy of Hesse	310,500	Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	12,758
Holstein	300,000	Hohenzollern-Hechingen	17,300
Frankfurt	215,000	Waldeck	34,023
Brunswick	200,000	Teus, Elder branch	22,455
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	350,000	Kosiger, do.	52,283
Prussia	300,707	Schwarzburg-Lippe	34,000
Saxe-Weimar	201,000	Lippe-Detmold	30,000
Oldenburg	155,000	Hesse-Homburg	40,000
Oldenburg	155,000	Lebeck	40,000
Meiningen	155,000	Frankfurt	45,000
Hildburghausen	155,000	Bremen	45,000
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	155,000	Hamburg	120,000
Oldenburg	155,000		

GERMANY,

565

Shop	Freisingen.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
to its own bishop.	Passau, E. on the Danube.	—	240
to the Elector Palatine	Neuburg, W. on the Danube.	—	240
Subject to its own archbishop	Sakzburg, S. E. Hallen	—	2540

SWABIA CIRCLE.

	Chief towns.	
Subject to	Stuttgart, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40.	On or near the Neckar. } 3364
Subject to their	Hailbron.	
Subject to their	sub. to their	
Subject to their	own respect- tive marg.	
Subject to its	Augsburg, an imperial city, Hockstet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.	On or near the Rhine. } 258
Subject to its	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city	490
Subject to its own bishop	Constance on the lake of Constance.	765
Subject to their	Mindelheim, S. of Augsburg.	28
Subject to their	Furstenberg, S.	60
Subject to their	Hohenzollern, S.	216
Subject to their	Oetting, east.	~88
Subject to their	Konigsbeck, south-east.	150
Subject to their	Gemund, north.	580
Subject to their	Waldburg, south-east.	379
Subject to their	Limburg, north.	120
Subject to their	Kempten, on the Iller.	
Subject to their	Buchaw, S. of the Danube.	
Subject to their	Lindaw, on the lake of Constance, imperial cities.	

ordingen, N. of the Danube.

emingen, east.

stweil, on the Neckar, and many more.

Rhinefeld C. Rhinefeld and Lauffenburg. 480

gaw Burgaw, east. 650

w, on the Rhine Friburg and Brafee. 380

Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as I have already said of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations; the most probable is, that it is compounded from the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. Names, such as Allemanni, Teutones; which ancient designation; and the Germans themselves

The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts, on account of the situation, north, east, south, west, of the soil, which has a vast effect on the settled weather is found in the middle of the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp;

moved to the full by culture; and therefore in though in others it is surprisingly fruitful. Agriculture, which must necessarily change the most of their advantage. The seasons vary as much as parts, they are more regular than those that lie lakes and rivers. The north wind and the east

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns	Sq. M.
Archbishoprics and Electorates of	Cologne } to their Mentz } self- Trier } free } electors.	Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50. Bonn, on the Rhine. Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenburg, on the Maine. Trier, on the Moselle. Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city. Simmeren.	1964 1405 1765 154
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state sub. to its own duke	Rhinograftstein	Rhinograftstein	
Duch, of Simmeren,	Meurs, subject to Prussia	Meurs	
Counties of	Veldentz, subject to the Elec- tor Palatine	Veldentz	
	Spanheim	Crentznach	
	Leyningen	Leyningen.	
6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.			
	Divisions	Chief towns.	
Bishoprics of	Wurtburg. W. } Subject to Bamberg. N. } their resp. Aichstat, S. } bishops.	Wurtburg Bamberg Aichstat Cullenback	
Marquises of	Cullenback } Sub. to their north-east } respective Anigach, S. } margraves.	Anspach	
	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	
Principality of Henneberg, N.	—	Hennebergh.	
Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke	—	Coburg	
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke	—	Hilburghausen	
Burggrave of Nuremberg, S. E. an independent state	—	Nuremberg, an imperial city.	640
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order.	—	Mergentheim.	56
Mergentheim, S. W.	Reineck, W. Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar. Papenheim, S. f. to its own C. Wertheim, W. Cassel, middle Schwartzburg, subject to its own count Holach, S. W.	Reineck Bareith C S H	
Counties of			

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
Archduchy of Austria Proper	Vienna E. lon.
	Lints, Eng.
	Gratz, C.
Puchies of	Glagenfurt
	Laubach,
	Veits, S.
County of Tyrol	Gorits, S. E.
	Inspruck, S.
Bishoprics of	Brixen } S.
	Trent }

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32.
	thur, Ingoldstat, N.
	tishon, N. an imper
Palatinate of Bavaria	Amberg (Sultzbach), nube.

PRICE FIVE PENCE.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

PARIS, SEPT. 5.—Mr. Barthe, the London Banker, who has for some time past been in Paris, left this capital on the 4th inst. on a journey to Holland, from thence he will proceed to Aix-la-Chapelle.

A subscription has recently been opened for a monument, to be erected at Florence, in honour of Dante, in the church of Santa Croce, the Pantheon of Tuscany. This act of justice, which ought to have taken place in the time of the Republic, which ought to have been reserved for the sake of Ferdinand III., the protector of arts, and the supporter of justice.

The King of Sweden has caused sketches to be taken of the environs of Pau. This town was his birth place.

The funeral ceremony of the mortal remains of General Kleber will take place at Strasburg, on the 7th inst.

FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR. 31.—This morning the Duke of Wellington reviewed the whole of the Austrian corps under the command of General Primat. His Grace afterwards proceeded to Reichshausen, near Hildersbach; to-morrow he will review the troops of Wurtemberg in the plain of Gundelsbach. All the Austrian troops remained in place, were concentrated; they went through various military evolutions in the most perfect order, and presented a most imposing appearance.

NETHERLANDS.

BRUSSELS, SEPT. 5.—Among the latest arrivals here are several Russians of distinction, as well as English and French. It is said that the Duke of Devonshire will be here.

Further particulars may be
of Bond's Glen, Eng.
Binson, the Bankrupt, in Letters
sets and Boundaries; or S. Kildare
set, Dublin.

CORK GLEN DISTILLERY.

The Partnership hitherto carried on
of Sir David Ferrier and Company.
December, they will sell, by Public
Auction, their Interest in the Public
House, which are mostly new. This
to any other, thereby enabling the
I will positively be sold without reserve.
N. I.—Two, three and four years, will be
Every information respecting this
ary and Vincent, Attorneys, South Mall,
Cork, Nov. 13, 1815.

TO BE SOLD BY AUCTION.

the Matter of the Eo-
noble Charles French,
Lord French, Henry
Almond French, Michael
French, William French, the
French, Thomas French, and
French, Martin French, and
French, Bankrupts.

the afternoon of said day, all the Estate, Real
and Lands of French, William French, in and to
with the several Houses and Offices therein,
under a Lease for ever, now producing
rent of £165 ss. 6d. Also the said Bankrupts
the said French, and part of the Land of
French, French, and part of the Land of
French, are situate in the county of Dublin, in
several Dwelling-Houses, Offices, Yards, Gardens,
of Ground, in the town of Dublin, producing

CORK GLEN DISTILL

CORK GLEN DISTILL
The Partnership heretofore carried on
of Sir David Perrier and Company,
at present, they will sell, by Public
December, at Hall's Sale Room, Cork,
their interest in the aforesaid concern
to new persons, who are mostly new. This
is not extensive in Ireland, possessing
any other, thereby enabling the
liberally under the usual charges attendan
will positively be sold without reserve.
I—Two, three and four years, will be
of the Purchase-Money, and terms of
and Vincent, Attorneys, South Mall,
Nor. 13, 1815.

9. S W A B I A CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Freisingen, subject to its bishop.	Freisingen.	240
Bishopric of Passau, subject to its own bishop.	Passau, E. on the Danube.	240
Duchy of Neuberg, subject to the Elector Palatine	Neuberg, W. on the Danube.	450
Archbishopric of Salzburg, subject to its own archbishop	Salzburg, S. E. Hallen	2540

Subdivisions.		Chief towns.		
Duchy of Wurtemberg, subject to the duke of Wurtemberg	Stuttgart.	B. lon. 9. N. lat. 44. 40.	Tubingen, } On or near the Neckar. }	3364
	Stuttgart.	lon. 9. N. lat. 44. 40.	Tubingen, }	
	Stuttgart.	lon. 9. N. lat. 44. 40.	Tubingen, }	
Marquifates of { Baden Baden }	sub. to their own refpec- tive marg.	{ Baden }	{ On or near }	258
{ Baden Durlach }		{ Baden Durlach }	{ the Rhine. }	490
Bifhopric of Augfburg, fubject to its own bifhop	Augfburg.	an imperial city, Hockhet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.		765
Territory of Ulm, a fovereign ftate	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city			28
Bifhopric of Conftance, fubject to its own bifhop	Conftance on the lake of Conftance.			60
Principalities of { Mindelheim }	Subject to their refpective princes	{ Mindelheim, S. of Augfburg. }		216
{ Furfenberg }		{ Furfenberg, S. }		788
{ Hohenzollern }		{ Hohenzollern, S. }		150
{ Oetting }		{ Oetting, eaff. }		58
Counties of { Konigfleck }	—	{ Konigfleck, fouth eaff. }		375
{ Hohenrichsburg }		{ Gemund, north. }		120
Baronies of { Waldburg }	—	{ Waldburg, fouth-eaff. }		
{ Limburg }		{ Limburg, north. }		
{ Kempten }		{ Kempten, on the Iller: }		
Abbies of { Buchaw }		{ Buchaw, S. of the Danube. }		
{ Lindaw }		{ Lindaw, on the lake of Conftance, imperial cities. }		
Imperial cities, or fovereign ftates	Nordlingen, N. of the Danube. Memmingen, eaff. Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more.			
Subject to the houfe of Auftria.	Black foreft, N. W. Rhinefield C. Marquifate of Burgaw Territory of Brifgaw, on the Rhine	Rhinefield and Lauffenburg. Burgaw, eaff. Friburg and Brafae.		480 650 380

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, north, east, south, and west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect on the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprisingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts, they are more regular than those that lie near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the east

tern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chafes yet standing in Germany than in most other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Cæsar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well-stocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current, and which some pretend to be naturally the finest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is so broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Moselle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these, are the Chiemsee, or the Lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-see in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides those lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

MINERAL WATER AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of those than all Europe besides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and those of Pymont. Those of Aix la Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. Each of those, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they say, they cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewise reported to perform their wonders in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last-mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages.

After all, many are of opinion, that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients. It is the interest of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes

feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite institutions for the diversion of the public. The neatness, cleanliness, and conveniency of the places of public resort are inconceivable; and though at first they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themselves in a few years by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quick-silver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, allum and bitumen; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which to a strong fancy represent different animals and sometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits, and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote against poison.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] These differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already described: but naturalists are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its present, what we may call rude state, provisions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witness the prodigious armies which the most uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richest and most fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and the Moselle wines, differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness and deterfive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their flesh, and the hams made of it are preferred by many, even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can master, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they surprise artfully, and devour greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of a torpid state, and, not being able to move, is killed by the huntsmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their horses, oxen and sheep, are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to the want of skill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing-birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } As the empire of Germany is a collection of separate states, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to speak with precision as to the number of its inhabitants; but lately the following estimate hath been formed of them:

Moravia	—	—	—	1,100,000
Austrian Silesia	—	—	—	200,000
High and Low Lusatia	—	—	—	380,000

Circle of Austria	—	—	—	4,150,000
Bavaria	—	—	—	1,148,438
Archbishopric of Saltzburgh	—	—	—	250,000
Wurtenburgh	—	—	—	565,890
Baden	—	—	—	200,000
Augsburgh	—	—	—	40,000
Bamberg and Wurtzburg }	—	—	—	400,000
Nuremberg	—	—	—	70,000
Juliers and Berg	—	—	—	260,000
Munster	—	—	—	130,000
Ofenburg	—	—	—	116,664
The Prussian Estates in the Circle of Westphalia	—	—	—	550,000
Nassau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	—	—	—	74,699
Oldenbourg	—	—	—	79,071
Mayence	—	—	—	314,000
Palatinate of Rhine	—	—	—	289,614
Hesse Cassel and Darmstadt	—	—	—	700,000
Fulda	—	—	—	7,000
Frankfort on the Main	—	—	—	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	—	—	—	1,326,041
Swedish Pomerania	—	—	—	100,549
Prussian Pomerania	—	—	—	462,970
Brandenburgh	—	—	—	1,007,232
Gotha	—	—	—	77,898
Schwartzburgh, Magdeburg, and Mansfield	—	—	—	271,461
Halberstadt and Hohenstein	—	—	—	130,671
Hanover	—	—	—	730,000
Brunswick	—	—	—	166,340
Holstein	—	—	—	300,000
Mecklenburgh	—	—	—	220,000
Mulhausen	—	—	—	13,000
Hamburgh	—	—	—	100,000
				<hr/>
				17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; the kingdom of Bohemia will be noticed in the proper place, and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all is now computed at twenty-one millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally increase among them.

The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in some other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which, in fashion, are the same as in France and England; but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different

manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels: but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago: As to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, convenience, and circumstances. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned in the northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumstances of the common people are far preferable to those of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and shew. The Germans in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both against the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars, the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not visible, especially in watch and clock making, jewelry, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which I shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But those practices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premised, it may easily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman standing on the sledge behind guides the horse.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I shall confine myself to what is most necessary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are to this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the church of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in that church. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated Englishman John Wickliff, who went much farther in the work of reformation than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliff was seconded by John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The Reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism†, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go so far as to say, that the numbers of Protestants and Catholics in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are by the protestant German princes considered in a civil rather than a religious light.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP-SEES.] These are differently represented by authors; some of whom represent Vienna as being a suffragan to the archiepiscopal see of Saltburgh; and others as being an archbishopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffra-

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517, and died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Presbyterians, and from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

gans; but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction;—Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburgh has five;—Salzburg has nine, besides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods since the Reformation, it has been found expedient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularise the following bishop-sees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Lubec and Osnaburg, which last goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic majesty's second son. Such of those sees as were archbishoprics are now considered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel. Geheiligt werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser täglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unser schuld, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und führe uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlöse uns von dem bösen. Den dein is das reich, und die krafft, und die herrlichkeit, ewigheit. Amen.*

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } No country has produced a greater variety of
AND UNIVERSITIES. } authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almost every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there are 36 universities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academics and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosi*; the academy of sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipzig, at Dinsburgh, at Gießen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin society at Jena. Of the public libraries the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipzig.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heister of anatomy and surgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraff, of chymistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematical theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation, was pure and

original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in consequence disregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who has been greatly honoured by the present king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and by instituting a literary society, for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study of the *belles lettres*. We may consider this as the epocha, from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned subjects, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verboseness and pedantry by which they had been characterized. About this time several young men in the university of Leipsic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of a literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also now underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models: and Mosheim, Jerusalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country; though they still retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the *Spectator*, *Tatler*, and *Guardian* being translated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of "*The Patriot*;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gellert, who is one of the most elegant of the German authors, and one of the most esteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almost by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller, the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Lessing, Gleim, Gessenberger, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Zacariae, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Lessing, Wieland and Wiese, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans; though some of his pieces are of too

local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Geiner, whose *Idylls* and *Death of Abel* have been translated into the English language, is known among us in a more favourable light.

In chymistry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conspicuous: and Reimar, Zimmerman, Abt, Kaestner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busching is an excellent geographical writer; and Mascou, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry or uninteresting; which perhaps is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry, which is still predominant among some of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Albertus, Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimar, Havercamp, and Heyne, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts instead of the German, and that so many of their princes should give it so decided a preference. Even the late king of Prussia had ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue: by which, some of the Germans think, his majesty has cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language.

With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves tolerably well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if first invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the first inventors of great guns; as also of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians; Handel, Bach, and Hesse, of whom Handel stands at the head; and it is acknowledged, that he arrived at the sublime of music, but he had not the smallest idea between music and sentimental expression.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } This is a copious head in all
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occasional esti- } countries, but more particularly
mates of REVENUES AND POPULATION. } so in Germany, on account of
the numerous independent states it contains. The reader therefore must be contented with the mention of the most capital places, and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet during the late war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides

a Roman Catholic one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houses, though neat without, are ill-furnished and ill-finished within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk-looms, 149 of half-silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and sixpence, amounts to 1,350,000*l*. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more of Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than hath been already said of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all, its suburbs, are magnificent beyond all expression, that it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and that it is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipzig in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 40,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches; but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchants houses, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religious matters. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the established religion, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university-library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred

houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchase to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, and have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. I shall here just mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularised bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the dutchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishopric amounts to about 30,000*l*.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally centre at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to bring his Prussian majesty in near a million sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought in to the house of Austria above 500,000*l*. yearly.

Frankfort is situated in an healthful, fertile, and delightful country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone; the ditches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the outworks are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaister, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Trierhof, the Cullenhof; the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the Maine, the Hesse-Darmstadt-hof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal squares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman

St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are computed at about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations around.

After all that has been said of this magnificent city, the most candid and sensible of those who have visited it, are far from being lavish in its praise. The streets, excepting those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor. His present imperial majesty seems to be sensible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has descended from that haughtiness of demeanour which rendered the imperial court so long disagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the rest of Europe. In general, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since his accession to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the protestants, and many of the Catholic religious houses, convents, &c. are suppressed by him.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } In describing the mineral and other springs,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } I anticipated great part of this article, which
is of itself very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogheads, and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers are seldom suffered to retire sober. Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The Imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and, above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious: they strike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and sometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houses in great cities and villages have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg in Hartz-forest, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very strongly attested, it has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing

two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its natural materials for commerce (besides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cummin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribbands, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber both for ship-building and houses, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel work, copper, brass-wire, porcelain the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hogs bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the disadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarse woollen manufactures, and several other commodities, so cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Asiatic company of Embden, established by his present Prussian majesty, was, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ships have been sent out since the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majesty laid on the company, have been the cause of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany very large and extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whose power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or, in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility and deputies of cities enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to seven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather by the mother's side, to the present emperor, the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as is supposed, heart-broken, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the

person, who in his life-time is chosen king of the Romans, succeeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution; for George II. of England was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and also against the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedence for his ambassadors in all christian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the Imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbishop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbishop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, The archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great steward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the post of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of those members; and during the vacancy of the Imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburgh, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wirtzburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beside these, are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeesses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute; and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the Landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswic, Wolfenbittel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquises of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are Imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The Imperial council consists of 50 judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuses one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that

family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic-counsellors, of whom fix are protestants, besides other officers, but the emperor in fact is master of the court. These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. These directors are commonly as follow. For Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Suabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or bishop of Constance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbishop of Salzburg; and for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperial majesty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced; the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or prince's, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences: upon the whole, the constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. But however plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. Lately, indeed, the house of Austria has met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and abilities of the present king of Prussia. Before I close this head, it may be necessary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German history, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guarantied by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been again and again opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they entirely without redress when they suffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief; whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the subject are entirely at the disposal of the grand monarch. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy: for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vassals and dependants. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their

superiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be denominated slaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as such, hath an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 sterling in Germany and Italy; a sum that goes far in those countries. The late king of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his present majesty, though he maintained a large army, was so good an economist that he left 7,000,000 sterling in his coffers; and some have thought that Silesia alone brings half a million sterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and consequently the low price of provisions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that some princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot speak with any tolerable precision on a subject of such variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends so many independent states.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two last wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions, the whole management being engrossed by the head of the house of Austria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or register, which, among other letters, contains the assessments of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. Those assessments, however, are subject to great mutability. It is sufficient here to say, that upon a moderate computation the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500, in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	-	-	6000
The elector of Triers	-	-	6000
The elector of Cologne	-	-	6000
The bishop of Munster	-	-	8000
The bishop of Liege	-	-	8000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	-	-	8000
The bishop of Wurtzburg	-	-	2000
The bishop of Bamberg	-	-	5000
The bishop of Paderborn	-	-	3000
The bishop of Osnaburg	-	-	2500
The abbot of Fulda	-	-	6000
The other bishoprics of the empire	-	-	6000
The abbies and provostships of the empire	-	-	8000
Total of the ecclesiastical princes	-	-	74500
The emperor, for Hungary	-	-	30000
for Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	-	-	30000
for Austria, and other dominions	-	-	30000
Carried over	-	-	90000

Brought forward	-	-	-	-	-	90000
The king of Prussia	-	-	-	-	-	40000
The elector of Saxony	-	-	-	-	-	25000
The elector of Palatine	-	-	-	-	-	15000
The duke of Wirtemberg	-	-	-	-	-	15000
The landgrave of Hesse Cassel	-	-	-	-	-	15000
The prince of Baden	-	-	-	-	-	10000
The elector of Hanover	-	-	-	-	-	30000
The duke of Holstein	-	-	-	-	-	12000
The duke of Mecklenburgh	-	-	-	-	-	15000
The prince of Anhalt	-	-	-	-	-	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	-	-	-	-	-	6000
The elector of Bavaria	-	-	-	-	-	30000
The dukes of Saxony	-	-	-	-	-	10000
The prince of Nassau	-	-	-	-	-	10000
The other princes and imperial towns	-	-	-	-	-	50000
						<hr/>
The secular princes	-	-	-	-	-	379000
The ecclesiastical princes	-	-	-	-	-	74500
						<hr/>
						453500

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the most powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different interests pursued by the several princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little consequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The army of the present emperor was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thousand.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Germany pretends to be
TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. } successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is vested as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as descended from the house of Burgundy. The empress dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empress-queen instituted the order of St. Teresa.

The order of the *Golden Fleece* was instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his

third wife. It is supposed that he chose the badge, it being the chief of the staple manufactures of his country. It at first consisted of thirty knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first families in the Low Countries, and it still continues to be classed with the most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At present there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is sovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all must prove their noble descent from the twelfth century. They usually wear a Golden Fleece proper, pendant to a broad plain red ribband round their neck; but on days of ceremony, they wear the collar of the order, which is composed of double steels, interwoven with flint stones emitting sparks of fire, the whole enamelled in their proper colours, at the end of which hangs on the breast a golden fleece. The fusils are joined two and two, as if they were double B B's, the cypher of Burgundy, and the flint stones the ancient arms of the sovereigns of that duchy, with their motto, "*Ante ferit quam flamma micet.*" The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*"

The Teutonic order owed its origin to some religious Germans in Jerusalem during the crusades, who assumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the Germans at Jerusalem." They wear a white mantle, and had for their badge a cross potent sable. The original badge assigned by the emperor Henry VI. was a cross potent black; John king of Jerusalem added thereto the cross double potent gold; the emperor Frederic II. gave them the imperial eagle, and St. Lewis augmented the badge with semé of fleurs-de-lis on a chief blue. Courade duke of Swabia invited them into Prussia about the year 1230, soon after they conquered Prussia for themselves, and became one of the most powerful orders in Europe. By the order dividing against itself, they afterwards lost their power and possessions; and Albert marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuring the Catholic religion, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the Catholics who followed not his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the protestant branch, who have a house at Utrecht, hath been noticed in our account of orders in the Netherlands—that for Catholics, hath a house at Mergenheim in Germany, and the members must take the oath of celibacy. The ensign worn by this branch is as above described, worn round the neck pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the institution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is sovereign thereof, and it is generally bestowed on general officers. The badge is a golden square medal enamelled white, on which is an eagle displayed red. It is worn pendent to a broad red watered riband, edged with yellow and worn scarfwise. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and security hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold, on one side are the names of the two princes with this device, *Amisè sincere*; on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm branches crossed, with this motto, *Unis pour jamais*.

John George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, instituted the "*Order of the Noble Passport*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the sovereign. The badge is a gold medal enamelled white, on which is a star of eight points, gold, charged with a cross red, surmounted with an oval blue, on which are the letters J. G. in a cypher, the whole encircled with these words, "*J'aime l'honneur qui vient par la vertu.*" Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign. In the year 1709, Louisa Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Merzburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," first instituted in 1652, by her father the duke of Wirtemberg. A princess of

that house alone can be sovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amusements and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, surmounted with a cross pattée black: above the cross pattée, another cross composed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black riband edged with white, and on the riband these words, *memento mori*, worn at the breast.

The great order of Wirtemburgh, is that "*of the Chace*" instituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. The badge of the order is a gold cross of eight points enamelled red, in the spaces between the branches of the cross is an eagle displayed, red, and between the points of each traverse a bugle horn, and in the centre the letter W. and over it a ducal coronet enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendant to a broad scarlet watered riband, passing scarfwise from the left shoulder to the right side. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto "*Amicitia, virtutisque Fœdus.*" The festival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. The number of counts and barons of the order, who enjoy the memorial lands annexed to it, is limited to twelve, but the number of princes and private gentlemen is not fixed. All are to prove the nobility of their descent for four generations, and on the day of reception are to pay 100 ducats to the poor. The elector Palatine is grand-master of the order. The badge is a cross of eight points, from the angles issue rays, and in the middle of a circle is enamelled the figure of St. Hubert kneeling before a crucifix, placed between the horns of a stag standing in a wood, having in the centre this device in the Runic language, "*Constans in fidelitate*," on a red ground. All the knights have either military employments or pensions.

The archbishop of Saltzburgh in 1701, instituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apostle of his country. It is composed of twelve knights, distinguished by a chain of gold round the neck to which is pendant the badge, which is a cross of eight points enamelled blue, and on the centre the image of St. Rupert. As the archbishop is the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector, his order is in good esteem. In the year 1729, Albert elector of Bavaria instituted the "*order of St. George the defender of the immaculate conception.*" The knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations: the badge they wear, is a star of eight points, and on the centre is enamelled the image of St. George on horseback slaying a dragon. The cross is enamelled blue edged with white. On days of ceremony, they wear the badge pendent to a collar composed of oblong plates with crowns at each end, and columns surmounted with globes, each column supported by two lions holding in their exterior paws two scymitars, the whole joined together with lozenge chains, enamelled blue with white—on the oblong plates, is this motto, "*In fide, justitia, et fortitudine.*"

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," was instituted by the present landgrave of Hesse Cassel; is equally a military and civil order, but mostly conferred on general officers. The badge is an octagonal medal enamelled red, in the centre a lion rampant, gold, ducally crowned; it is pendent to a broad watered crimson riband, worn scarfwise. The present landgrave hath also instituted the military "*Order of merit*," the badge of which is a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, and in the

centre this motto, "*Pro virtute et fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendant to a blue riband edged with silver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. At length, the Roman power connected with artifice, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was shattered by the excursions of the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquisses of that nation. In this situation Germany continued notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then it was, that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniusses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, assuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovigian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and sometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his stewards, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor*. Thus while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the

* Wiquefort saith, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was chosen emperor in 1347, and made that famous constitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

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people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's jurisdiction. Otho I. having in the year 962 united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity: but pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope, that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1538, Albert II. archduke of Austria, was elected emperor and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558, succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. I mention this destination, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. He was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at last, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissioners out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle

of Prague; and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Christian duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandised. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian having put himself at the head of the evangehic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made such a use of his advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leiptic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already described his amazing victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Tottenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary, and by the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the Prince of Orange, afterwards king William the III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte and the Turks, when that prince died in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England should take the labouring oar in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male issue, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at first made a shew as if he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Faden, in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary.

where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the same general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and next year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I.; and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and he obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had before his death, given his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered, and conquered Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her little son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his ancestor in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but

she haughtily and impolitically rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity : but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French ; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died ; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia ; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this his Prussian majesty, all of a sudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden ; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now become great duke of Tuscany, for Emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified ; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impreguably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire ; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery ; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent

troops : but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war ; and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff ; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia ; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did ; six sieges were raised almost at the same time ; that of Colberg, by the Russians ; that of Leipzig, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire ; that of Dresden, by Daun ; and those of Neisse, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians ; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair ; but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and 40 brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut, the Imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses ; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions ; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the Imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762 ; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other German princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first

the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertshurg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. His Imperial majesty, soon after his accession, discovered great talents for government, and for partitioning other countries. He joined in the dismemberment of Poland, with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome and the principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust, but in the support of them, while the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. Since that event, the emperor has been much better employed than in the operations of war, except in his late demands on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheldt, &c. contrary to the stipulation of former treaties; in the observance of which, to support his ancestors, the Dutch as well as English spent many millions of money, and sacrificed thousands of souls. He has endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects, has granted a most liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes as being utterly useless and even pernicious to society, and in 1783, by an edict, abolished the remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu. He has also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He is a prince of great penetration, of a philosophical turn of mind, and mixes with his subjects with an ease and affability that are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loves the conversation of ingenious men, and appears solicitous to cultivate that extensive knowledge, which ennoble those who adorn the elevated station to which he has been raised.

Joseph-Benedict-Augustus, emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the same year the princess Josephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his first wife (the princess of Parma) a daughter, Theresia-Elizabeth, born in 1762, but she is dead, and the emperor had no issue by his last consort.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, } THIS country is bounded to the North by part
AND EXTENT. } of Samogitia; to the South, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to the East, by part of Lithuania; and to the West, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 150 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, } The name of Prussia is probably derived from
AND RIVERS. } the Eorussi, the ancient inhabitants of the coun-

try. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and game, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As Prussia, since the beginning of
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } the present century, has become a most
respectable power upon the continent of Europe, I shall, for the information of my
readers, deviate from my usual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole
of his Prussian majesty's territories, which lie scattered in other divisions of Ger-
many, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which
they will find in the following table.

Protestants.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Poland.	{ Ducal Prussia	9,950	160	112	KONIGSBERG { 54° 43' N. Lat.
	{ Royal Prussia	6,400	118	104	Elbing { 21° 35' E. Lon.
	{ Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin
Up. Saxony.	{ Pomerania	4,820	150	63	Bamlin
	{ Swedish Pomerania	2,991	90	48	Stetin
Lo. Saxony.	{ Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg
	{ Halberstadt	450	42	17	Halberstadt
Bohemia.	{ Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz
	{ Silesia	10,000	196	92	
	{ Minden	555	42	26	Minden
	{ Ravensburg	525	38	34	Ravensburg
Westphalia.	{ Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen
	{ Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves
	{ Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs
	{ Mark	980	52	43	Ham
	{ East Friesland	690	46	32	Emden
	{ Lippe	25	8	4	Lipstadt
	{ Gulich	520	44	24	Gulich
	{ Tecklenburg	30	12	6	Tecklenburg
Netherlands.	{ Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders
Switzerland.	{ Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Total —		51,281			

Besides a great part of Silesia, which the present king of Prussia, under various pretences, hath wrested from Austria; availing himself also of the internal troubles in Poland, he has, by virtue of no right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, seized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula, the Neister, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, close to the walls of Dantzic. These acquisitions may be traced in the map.

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone, were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms: and if so (for I greatly doubt that this computation is exaggerated), it must then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists.

have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, } The religion of Prussia is, through his present majesty's
AND ACADEMIES. } wisdom, very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but Catholics, antipædo-baptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Königsberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkably learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Königsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Königsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping, its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university which contains 38 professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Fredericksburg, and is a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES, AND CURIOSITIES, } See Germany.
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The present king of Prussia has endeavoured to increase the commerce of his kingdom; but the despotic nature of his government is not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Prussian manufactures, however, are not inconsiderable: they consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hempseed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Königsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, and he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 17 bailiwicks. The states consist. 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, his majesty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own skilful political regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum

is not known; though we may conclude that it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the late war. His revenues now, since the accession of Polish or Royal Prussia, must be greatly increased: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation was of vast importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia. By this acquisition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Königsberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and, during the last war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments; the whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the division, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, has occasioned such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that the present king has endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. These foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Prussians have every year some months of a furlough, during which they return to the houses of their fathers or brothers, and work at the business of the farm, or in any other way they please.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Prussia are argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre, Or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, The "Order of *Concord*," instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The badge is a gold cross of eight points, enamelled white; in the centre a medal bearing two olive branches passing saltier wise through two crowns, and circumscribed with the word "*Concordans*." The cross is surmounted with an electoral crown, and is worn pendant to an orange riband. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted in 1685, the "Order of *Generosity*." The knights wear a cross of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Générosité*," pendant to a blue riband.

The same prince instituted the "Order of the *Black Eagle*" on the day of his coronation at Königsberg, in the year 1700; the sovereign is always grand master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must all be admitted into the "Order of *Generosity*," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The ensign of the order is a gold cross, of eight points, enamelled blue, having at each angle a spread eagle, enamelled black, being the arms of Prussia, and charged in the centre with a cypher

of the letters *F. R.* Each knight commonly wears this pendant to a broad orange riband (out of respect to the orange family) worn fast-ways over the left shoulder, and a silver star embroidered on the left side of the coat, whereon is an escutcheon, containing a spread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto in gold letters round "*Summum cuique.*" On days of ceremony, the knights wear the badge pendant to a collar, composed of round pieces of gold, each enamelled with four cyphers of the letters *F. R.* in the centre of the piece is set a diamond, and over each cypher a regal crown, intermixed alternately with eagles displayed, enamelled black, and holding in their claws thunderbolts of gold. The knights caps are of black velvet with white plumes.

The "*Order of Merit*" was instituted by the late king in the year 1740 to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. The ensign is a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, and edged with gold, having in the centre a cypher of the letters *F. R.* and in each angle an eagle displayed black, on the two upper points the regal crown of Prussia; on the reverse, the motto "*Pour le Mérite.*" The badge is worn round the neck, pendent to a black riband, edged with silver.

[HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, descended from the Slavonians, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the king of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand master should possess the other part, but were to acknowledge themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia), but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant

interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, and proclaimed January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the late king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and performed prodigious services to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the present age. He improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783 he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling in future should be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the divinity: And near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782 in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

Frederic III. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg was born 25th September, 1744, and married 1765 to the princess Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunswic. His majesty's sister, Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	478	between { 48 and 52 north latitude. 12 and 19 east longitude.
Breadth	322	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the East; by Austria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the West; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and, 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the House of Austria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50.	Length 163 Breadth 142	12,060
	Königsgratz, E.		
	Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia.		
	Egra, W.		
2. Silesia, East, mostly subject to the king of Prussia.	Breslaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15.	Length 196 Breadth 92	10,250
	Glogaw, N.		
	Crossen, N.		
	Jagerndorf, S.		
	Troppaw, S. subject to the house of Austria.		
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria.	Teschchen, S. subject to the house of Austria.	Length 120 Breadth 88	5,424
	Olmütz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40.		
	Brin, middle.		
	Igla, S. W.		

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction: its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } We have no certain account of the present population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but they are thought at present not to be above 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the present emperor has generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the Imperial demefnes, from the state of villanage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his Imperial majesty's example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby led to cease to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though the Roman Catholic is the established religion of Bohemia, yet there are many Protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion; and some of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous missionaries, in several parts of the globe; some of whom a few years ago made proselytes in Great Britain; they have still a meeting-house in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capacity, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength nor manufactures.

Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described.

COMMENCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government, under the emperor, is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage; and they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute anything towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000*l.* a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria, received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414 John Huss and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the Imperial yoke, by electing in the year 1618 a protestant king in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence. After a war of 30 years duration, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians, since that time, have remained subject to the house of Austria.

H U N G A R Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300	between { 17 and 23 east longitude. 45 and 49 north latitude. }	36,060
Breadth 200		

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries), is bounded by Poland, on the

North; by Transylvania and Walachia, East; by Sclavonia, South; and by Austria and Moravia, West.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE

DANUBE.

Chief Towns.

Presburg, situate on the Danube, E. lon.

17-30. N. lat. 48-20.

Newhaufel, N. W.

Leopoldstadt, N. W.

Chremnitz, N. W.

Schemnitz, in the middle.

Eperies, N.

Chaschaw, N.

Tokay, N. E.

Zotmar, N. E.

Unguar, N. E.

Mongats, N. E.

Waradin Great, E.

Segedin, S. E.

Agria, in the middle.

Pest, on the Danube, opposite to Buda.

LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE

DANUBE.

Chief Towns.

Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40.

Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.

Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut.

Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut.

Attenburg, W. opposite to the island of Schut.

Weissenburg, or Alba Regalis, situated E. of the lake, called the Platten sea.

Kanisba, S. W. of the Platten sea.

Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeswar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 square miles: it has been divided into four districts, Cſadat, Temeswar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper,

vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, cryfocolla, and terra figillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between the Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their works being destroyed or demolished; some of them however still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } It was late before the northern barba-
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } rians drove the Romans out of Hungary;
and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, we have reason to think, that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at present, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad sword, and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their fable dress with sleeves strait to their arms, and their st 3 fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran, and Colocza. The bishoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Vespriin, Raab, and five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemost rank speak German, and almost all even of the common people speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities (if they can properly be so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Cschaw, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The artificial curiosities of this country consist of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Esseck built over the Danube, and Drave, is properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philosophy. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER }
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } These are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was sent in the year 1000 by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Besides these stones are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was

afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of Queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chafits resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000: these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the Hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari, and the Sclavi were planted in their stead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Christianity. In his reign, the form of government was established, and the crown to be elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th

century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solymán, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

I HAVE thrown those countries under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The best account of them is as follows: TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the East by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South by Walachia; and on the West by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles, but it is surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageswar, Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that during the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hun-

gary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been reformed. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Little is known of the termination of this revolt, further than the account of several of the leaders having been taken and executed, and the application of some lenient measures, by which tranquillity was restored.

SCLAVONIA lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the East, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Austria on the West. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independence. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; inasmuch that it is well known, that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *slave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Posëga, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Effek is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two last wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and

about 2,500 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Slavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carlostadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab (already mentioned), is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and

1. Hungarian DALMATIA : this lies in the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Otsochatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor, and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers: but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people, who being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a *deserter*. They are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman Catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Bucharest, and Severin.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	} between	{ 16 and 34 east longitude.
Breadth 680		{ 46 and 57 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**EFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic sea; on the East by Muscovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the West by Germany: and had the form of its government been as perfect as its situation was compact, it might have been one of the most powerful kingdoms in the universe. Its grand divisions were,

Poland.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Protestants.	Courland, subject to Russia.	4,414	174	80	Vittaw
	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna { Great part of this district is now possessed by Russia.
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Kaminieck
	Volhinia,	25,000	305	150	Lucko
	Great Poland,	19,200	206	160	Gnesa
Catholics.	Red Russia,	25,200	232	185	Lemberg { Now chiefly subject to Austria.
	Little Poland,	18,000	230	130	Cracow
	Polesia,	14,000	186	97	Breslci
	Masovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW { E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Rasien
	Prussia Royal, or Polish Prussia,	6,400	118	104	Elbing { Now subject to Prussia.
	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh
Total—		226,414			

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two last have been seized by the King of Prussia, and most of the privileges of the first.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either in winter or summer, as might be supposed from so northerly a situation, but the air is rather insalubrious by reason of the numerous woods and morasses.

SOIL, PRODUCE AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent from thence down the Vistula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are rich beyond expression: and it is said one can hardly see the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; false precious stones, and marine petrefactions. The inferior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in such great quantities, that it is employed in house building, instead of bricks, stone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is boiled into salt. The virtues of a spring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100.

and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame however dances on the surface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguished.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyssel, the Neister, Neiper or Boristhenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzesty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL }
PRODUCTIONS. } already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though some are peculiar to itself, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food dressed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces large as a man's fist, supposed to be the productions of a resinous pine.

The forests of Warfovia or Masovia contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horses, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country; but the elk which is common in Poland, as well as in some other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there was found in its head some large flies, with its brains almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that in the large woods, and wildernesses of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-sickness, by which means it is taken, which would otherwise prove no easy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any species of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their flesh is reckoned to be unwholesome. Lithuania is rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in these parts, famous for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, }
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } From what has been said of the extent of Poland, it is impossible to form an estimate of the number of its inhabitants; they undoubtedly, before the

breaking out of the late war, were very numerous; but they are so little known, even at present, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue still to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Christianity. Some have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and when we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000, of Jews are said to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. But since the partition and dismemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Russia are the largest, by the Austrian the most populous, and by the Prussian the most commercial. The Russian contain 1,500,000. The Austrian 2,500,000; and the Prussian about 860,000, amounting to about 5,000,000 of souls separated from their ancient kingdom.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable: and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands. Their diversions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull and bear baiting. They usually travel on horseback: a Polish gentleman will not travel a stone's-throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a few small beds, and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles, who are poor, frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving them that are rich: but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not open till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself: but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered that these servants are esteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility; and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive and shewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of their pomp, however, is proportioned to their estates; but each person goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, and peasants: the peasants are divided into two sorts, those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public

posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the highest appellation they can enjoy. They have many considerable privileges; and indeed the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals, pay no taxes, are subject to none but the king, may chuse whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraints they please by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, and as we have said with a despotic power over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, considered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant, and enacted, that in case of his decease without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations have proved ineffectual, against the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have estates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles possesses above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or other tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword, for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise 5 or 6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The peasants having no property, all their acquisitions serve only to enrich their master. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, the

generality of them scarcely entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready, upon every occasion, to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Most of them seem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumstantial in describing the manners and present state of the Poles, as they bear a near resemblance, in many particulars, to those of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vassals seems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings, have ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom, was Zamoiski, formerly great chancellor, who in 1760, enfranchised 6 villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event hath shewed the project to be no less judicious than humane; friendly to the noble's own interests as well as the happiness of the peasants, for it appears, that in the districts in which the new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchised four villages near Warsaw, and hath not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescends to direct their affairs. So that better times in that distressed country may be expected.

DRESS.] The dress of the Poles is pretty singular. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a sash, but the sleeves sit as close to their arm as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality bear fables, and others the skins of tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son.

Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and after his restoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad-cloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloath; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the district of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns in this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge three, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge

among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Roman Catholic: Protestants, to whom the name of Dissidents is now confined, are tolerated. In former times, the rights and numbers of the Protestants were so great, that they claimed equal authority with the Roman Catholics; and about 1573, both parties were called dissidentes quoad religionem. Yet, afterwards, the Protestants suffered very great oppression till after the late civil wars; their rights were, at length, settled in 1778, by the interference of the neighbouring powers. They are, however, still incapable of holding the senatorial dignity, and are admitted only to inferior appointments. Besides Calvinists and Lutherans, there are, in Poland, congregations of Greeks, Unitarians and Arians, all of whom are now comprehended under the name of Dissidents. The authority of the Pope is still very great, and his nuncio has a very extensive ecclesiastical jurisdiction. At the head of the Roman Catholic clergy is the primate of Poland, who is archbishop of Gnesen: he styles himself a prince: he has the first rank among the senators, and is legatus natus of the Holy See. There are, in Poland, 12 bishopricks, 37 abbeys, 579 convents of men, and 86 of women. The knights of Malta, residing in Poland, belong likewise to the clergy. The Lutheran church, is governed by a presbytery, or consistory of the Antistites of the church and the ministers: there are great contests subsisting between the adherents of this church and the Catholics. The Calvinists have one senior general and three seniors, to whom the government of their church is entrusted.

The principles of Socinianism made a very early and considerable progress in Poland. However, before Socinus came into Poland, it is computed that there were thirty-two congregations in that republic who denied the doctrine of the Trinity. A translation of the Bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the same persons, the catechism, or confession of the Unitarians, was published at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extensive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly persecuted. However, it was resolved between the republic and the partitioning powers, that all dissidents should henceforth enjoy the free exercise of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the senate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; also schools and seminaries of their own, and are capable of sitting in the inferior courts of justice.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbishoprics; Gnesna and Lemburg. The archbishop of Gnesna, besides being primate, and during an inter-reign prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect of Slavonic, and is both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs, some of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its soil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt

which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shewn for learning; the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of men, these circumstances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his present majesty, still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taste for science hath spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Wilna, and Posna or Posen. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendence of 14 grammar-schools dispersed through the city, the number of students in 1778. amounted to 600. Wilna was under the superintendence of the Jesuits, but since their suppression the king hath established a committee of education, who appoint professors and direct their salaries and studies: that of Posna was rather a Jesuit's college than an university.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The frequent incursions of the Tartars, and
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women sometimes to leave their children exposed in the woods, where we must suppose they were nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence. It is certain that such beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, divested of almost all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all-fours; but it is said that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech.

The salt mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish; but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other one of fresh. The revenue arising from those, and other salt-mines, is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before seized by Austria; the annual average profit of those of Wichitzka, eight miles from Cracow was about 98,000*l.* sterling. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a vast number of years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Gnesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and almost
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence; and contains many magnificent places and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It is said to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The streets are spacious but ill paved, and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy

country. It has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw); for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt-mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable. The city stands in an extensive plain watered by the Vistula, and with the suburbs occupies a vast space of ground, but all together scarcely contain 16,000 souls. It is surrounded with high brick walls, strengthened with round and square towers in the ancient style of fortification, and is garrisoned with 600 Russians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and straggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houses, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of which are Jews, and 3000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camlets, linen, cotton, silk, stuffs, &c. established there by the king in 1776. He hath also established in this place, an academy of physic for Lithuania, in which 10 students are instructed for physic, and 20 for surgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chefnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the president de Thou wrote his much esteemed *Historia sui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he so highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 parishes, with many convents and hospitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very considerably short of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Busching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 persons. Its own shipping is numerous; but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year also 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchless granaries; from whence that grain is distributed to many foreign nations: Poland being justly deemed the greatest magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greatest port for distributing it every where: besides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and vast variety of other articles. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch; but generally have shewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only, when his enemies, the Prussians, were at their gates, but even in possession of the city.

The reason why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland, is, because not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland, reserving to themselves large and ample privileges.

This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Prussia from those claims which he lately made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, his Prussian majesty, soon after, thought proper to seize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Polish Prussia. He then proceeded to possess himself of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a custom-house in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and insupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the system of oppression, custom-houses were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, so that no persons should go in or out of the town, without being searched in the strictest manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received from the king of Prussia, though few cities have ever existed, which have been comprehended in so many general and particular treaties, and whose rights and liberties have been so frequently secured, and guaranteed by so many great powers, and by such a long and regular succession of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; by the interposition of the empress of Russia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warsaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which it acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be restored to its former stability. The city of Thorn was also treated by the king of Prussia in the same unjust and oppressive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Vistula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject. It differs little from an aristocracy, hence Poland hath been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elect him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres, but if the minority are sufficiently strong, a civil war ensues. Immediately after his election, he signs the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; so that in fact he is no more than president of the senate, which is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the Palatines, and Castellants.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter is summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The starosts properly are governors and judges in particular starosties or districts, though some enjoy this title without any jurisdiction at all. The Palatines and Castellants, besides being senators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their respective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can sit but six weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king

sends them letters containing the heads of the business that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may sit in the dietine, and chuse nuncios or deputies, to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consists of the king, senators, and those deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and seventy for Prussia; and it meets twice at Warsaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of state, but they are accountable only to the senate; neither can he displace them when once appointed. When he is absent from Poland, his place is supplied by the archbishop of Gnesna, and if that see is vacant, by the bishop of Plosko.

The ten great officers of state in Poland, who are senators, are, the two great marshals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the great general, the great treasurer of the kingdom, and the treasurer of the duchy; the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the kingdom, and the submarshal, or marshal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which was new modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to sign; so that nothing can be said of it with certainty, there being lately a total dissolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of some of the neighbouring powers, interested to foment anarchy and confusion in the Polish councils: and many of the first nobility do not blush to receive pensions from foreign courts. It must however be acknowledged, that in the imperfect sketch I have exhibited, we can discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic: but it laboured, even in its best state, under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *velo*, or the tribunitia negative, that is vested in every member of a diet or dietine, must always be destructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords, in former ages, used to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in question is not to be found in any period of the Polish history antecedent to the reign of John Casimir. It was under his administration, that in the year 1652, when the diet of Warsaw was debating upon transactions of the utmost importance which required a speedy determination, that Sicinski, Nuncio of Uppra in Lithuania, cried out, "I stop the proceedings." Having uttered these words, he quitted the assembly, and repairing immediately to the chancellor, protested, that as many acts had been proposed and carried contrary to the constitution of the republic, if the diet continued to sit, he should consider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderstruck at a protest of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or dissolving the diet: at length, however, the venal and discontented faction, who supported the protest, obtained the majority; and the assembly broke up in great confusion. The want of subordination in the executive parts of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemish which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own consent. After all, when we examine the best accounts of the present constitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient history of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful similarity between what these were formerly, and what Poland

is at present. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and to maintain those unequal privileges which are so hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to possess an extensive territory within the kingdom, should be elected sovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper use of the prerogatives of disposing of all places of trust and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already vested in the crown, establish the succession in his own family, and deliver the Poles from those perpetual convulsions which generally attend elective kingdoms.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beside dismembering the best provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the constitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confusion. They insisted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at last obtained. By the *first* "that the crown of Poland shall be for ever elective, and all order of succession proscribed," thus the exclusion of a king's son and grandson, removes the prospect of an hereditary sovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inseparable from an elective monarchy. By the *second*, "that foreign candidates to the throne shall be excluded, and for the future, no person can be chosen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble origin and possessing land in the kingdom," the house of Saxony and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and restore its provinces and liberties, are set aside. By the *third*, "the government of Poland shall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form," the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equestrian order are confirmed in their utmost latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council shall be established, in which the executive power shall be vested; and in this council the equestrian order, hitherto excluded from the administration of affairs in the interval of diets, shall be admitted, so that the prerogatives of the crown are still farther diminished: but this change of the constitution was intended by the partitioning powers to serve their own purposes, and give a large scope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not seized.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is stinted in the political exercise of his prerogative, yet his revenue is sufficient to maintain him and his household, with great splendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of state, nor even his body-guards. The present king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins settled upon him by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors generally amounted to 140,000. sterling. The public revenues arose chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Austrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000. sterling; ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirshau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepoliomicz.

Western Prussia was the greatest loss to Poland, as by the dismemberment of that province, the navigation of the Vistula depends entirely upon the king of Prussia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Prussia has laid such heavy duties on the merchandise passing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminish the trade of that town, and to transfer a considerable part of it to Memel and Koningburgh.

	£.	sterl.
By the dismemberment, Poland lost near half her annual income. To supply this deficiency, it became necessary to new-model and increase the taxes.		
In 1775, all the imposts amounted to	323,012	0 0
The neat revenue of the king is	194,500	0 0
Out of which he only pays his household expences, and menial servants. It arises from his royal demesnes, starosties, and 74,074l. out of the treasury.		
Whole revenue	443,938	0 0
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purse	194,500	0 0
For army, state officers, and all other charges	249,438	0 0

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Polish nobility is such, that they always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland can raise 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with ease; but it must be understood that servants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are soon dismissed, because they must be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Polish grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it consisted in 1778, of 12310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The empress of Russia maintains in the country 10,000 soldiers, and every garrison is composed of Russians and natives: 1000 of the former are stationed at Warlaw. These hold the nobles in subjection, and the king himself is little more than a viceroy, while the Russian ambassador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The pospolite consists of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the starosts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions; but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are the finest and most shewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both those bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scymetars. After all that has been said, the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers to all discipline; and when drawn out, notwithstanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himself, have over them, they are oppressive and destructive to the court. It is certain, notwithstanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and that on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. It did not suit the Saxon princes, who succeeded that hero, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been since severely felt in that country.

ORDERS.] The "order of the *White Eagle*," was first instituted by Uladislaus in the year 1325, but revived by Augustus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him some of the Polish nobles who he feared were inclined to Stanislaus his competitor, it was conferred also on the czar Peter the Great of Russia. The collar is composed of eagles displayed, and annulets linked together, having pendent to it the badge, which is a cross of eight points enamelled, gold, bordered white and cantoned with

a smaller cross, having a bead on each point charged on one side with an eagle, white displayed, having over its head an imperial crown, and on the reverse the king's cypher with this motto, "*Pro fide, rege, et lege.*" The knights commonly wear the badge pendent to a broad blue riband, worn sash-ways from the right shoulder and under the left arm, and a star of eight points embroidered in gold and silver alternately on the left side of their coat. The present king instituted the "order of *St. Stanislaus*," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of *St. Stanislaus* enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red riband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre, is a cypher of *S. A. R.* (*Stanislaus Augustus Rex*) encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland of old, was possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Rus and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of another, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of duke to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, one Piaslus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has been since elected king is called a Piasl. From this period, for some centuries, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained, till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno. 1059. Jagello, who in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to chuse a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori prince of Transylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John king of Sweden, by Catharine sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have already seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and the Swedes.

At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Braunsberg and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1623, Sigismund died, and Uladislaus his son succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, who are naturally a brave people, became desperate; and upon the succession of John II. brother to Uladislaus, the Cossac general Schmielinski defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at last forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears that, during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of Russians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; but his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. While the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble, and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During those transactions, the Polish nobility grew very uneasy with their king. Some of them were dissatisfied with the concessions he had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king a private gentleman of little interest, and less capacity, one Michael Wiefnowski, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kamienieck, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure

maintained by John Sobieski, the crown general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kamienieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger son prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warlaw to Dantzic. All of a sudden, Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate, and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus) and afterwards restored by the Czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, against the power of Russia and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.). This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in the history of Germany, mentioned the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his present Prussian majesty. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through

the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be reinstated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect with the Roman catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among Christians," said they in their petition, "ought not to enter into any consideration with regard to the employments of the state. The different sects of Christians, although they differ in opinion among themselves with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Christian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profess, Christian princes ought only to seek after those whose merit and talents make them capable of serving their country properly." The king gave no answer at this time to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to treat the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for that prince, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, yet it was manifest from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation run into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the catholic clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal Polish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To these complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces it is said to have swept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile, some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. But it has been observed, that the conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte towards the distressed Poles, were strictly just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and Apostolic neighbours*.

* In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, wherein she declares, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories, which were actually in possession, or subject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dis-

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Kōziński, an officer among the Polish confederates, and several others, to assassinate the king of Poland, in the streets of Warsaw. His majesty received two wounds on his head, one from a ball, and the other from a sabre; notwithstanding which he had the good fortune to escape with life, by Kozinski's relenting, for which his own life was saved, and he now resides in the papal territories, with an annual pension from the king. Pulaski, another of the conspirators, distinguished himself in the American service, and was killed in attacking the British lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and the empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland: though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia in the beginning of the 17th century saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles, while Austria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. The three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other: Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia †; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia ‡. But though each of the powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them respectively, and published manifestos in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, chusing rather to live in exile, and to have

possess them of the same." In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, that he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pom-rania." In the same instrument he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use. Such is the faith of princes, the instability of human politics, and of human affairs!

† The district claimed by Austria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right side of the Vistula, from Silesia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoise, and Rubieslow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Russia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a straight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrzytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries separating Podolia from Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Austria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

‡ The Russian claims comprise Polish Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotsk to the east of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepsk, Mielislaw and two portions of the palatinate of Minsk. This tract of land (Polish Livonia excepted) is situated in White Russia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the governments of Polotsk and Mohilef.

all their landed property confiscated, than be the instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king of Poland was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

As to the king of Prussia, his conduct in Poland was the most tyrannical and oppressive that can be conceived. It was in the year 1771 that his troops entered into Great Poland, and during the space of that year he carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, an edict was published by his Prussian majesty, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation he gained, by this masterly and honest manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpose he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of the house of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland has justly been considered as the first great breach in the modern political system of Europe. The surprise of a town, the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would some years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the destruction of a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the most astonishing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the senate there was a majority of six, but in the lower house, the assembly of nuncios, there was but one vote in favour of the measure, 54 against 53. This is a very alarming circumstance, and shews that a most important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for some ages an object of unremitting attention with most of the states of Europe. Our ancestors might, perhaps, on some occasions, discover rather more anxiety about preserving the balance of power in Europe than was necessary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of considering Europe as a vast common-

wealth, of the several parts being distinct and separate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the rest, was great and liberal, and, though the result of barbarism, was founded upon the most enlarged principles of the wisest policy. It appears to be owing to this system, that this small part of the western world has acquired so astonishing a superiority over the rest of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a similar system of policy, though formed upon a smaller scale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that system.

Stanislaus Augustus (late count Poniatowski) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, resided some time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
Length 260 } between { 6 and 11 east longitude.
Breadth 100 } { 46 and 48 north latitude.
BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alsace and Suabia in Germany, on the North;
by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the East; by
Italy, on the South; and by France, on the West.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which stand in point of precedence as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweiz; 6. Unterwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

The best account we have of the dimensions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Switzerland.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhausen
	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL { 47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Lon.
Catholics.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne
	Unterwalden	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse
Catholics.	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
	Soleure	253	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn
	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel
Calvinists and Catholics.	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
	Baden	216	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten
	Mellingen	40	20	5	Mellingen
The subjects of the Swissers, Calvinists and Catholics.	Rheinthal				Rheineck
	Thurgau	119	16	11	Frowanfield
	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano
	Locarno				Locarno
	Mendris				Mendris
	Maggia				Maggia
		7,533			

Allies of the Switzers.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists	Grifons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Grifons, Calvi- nists and Cath.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	360	27	19	Sondrio
	Valtelline.				
Calvinists.	Tockenburgh	168	27	8	Liechtensteg
	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
Catholics.	Basle	270	13	16	Delsperg
	St. Gall	144	20	10	St. Gall
Total		12,884			Mulhausen, in Alsace is also united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even ascend them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, cornfields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, courages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. In short, Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature, in her most awful and tremendous forms.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reufs, the Tesin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, are also found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois; whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are much subject to pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer is said to perfectly resemble other hares, but in winter becomes all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the best accounts, the } cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even amongst many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the

active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross-bow and musket.

RELIGIONS.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Zuinglius was the apostle of protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism is said to be the religion of the protestant Swisses. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of church government; for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are in general much less liberal.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swisses who border upon France speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent J. J. Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin du Village* in particular is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and Mess. de Sauffure, De Luc and De Lolme also deserve to be mentioned with applause, and will be remembered till the Alps shall be no more.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals or paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only siled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a canton in this mountain-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }ous country presents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieling, all cut out of the rock. At the famous pass of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marcasites, false diamonds, and other stones, found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from

Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Lemman, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. Near Rosiniere, is a famous spring which rises in the midst of a natural basin of 12 square feet—the force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies, its surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable; probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that hath here found an issue for its waters.

CITIES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsac, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Bern, but in the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I shall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state, and republic. The city is well built, and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the afflux of the Rhone from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the usurpation of the Senate, hath divided the citizens into parties, and the late struggle of Patricians and Plebeians had nearly ruined all. The city is now under the protection of France, or rather its magistrates, and council, the partizans of aristocracy; many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and sought refuge and protection in Ireland and elsewhere.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in these manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of de-

mocracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schweiz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even those aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the basis of affection, a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first are the Swisses, properly so called. The second are the Giliöns, or the states, confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to ensure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Bern are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expences of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swisses are possessed of 500,000*l.* sterling in the English funds, besides those in other banks.

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandise; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The economy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its po-

pulation. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

HISTORY.] The present Swisses and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation, formed a better security for their liberties, than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little better than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gressler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. One William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gressler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended to his [Gressler's] heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swisses from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suisse, and Underwaldt, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basil and Scaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neuchâtel, since the year 1707, hath been under the dominion of the king of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 500*l.* yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 700 } between { 10 and 3 east longitude.
 Breadth 500 } { 36 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the East; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the North; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar, on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Spain.				
Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID } N. Lat. 40° 30. W. Lon. 4° 15.
Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville
Castile, Old	14,400	193	147	Burgos
Aragon	13,818	190	108	Saragossa
Extremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajoz
Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella
Leon	11,200	167	90	Leon
Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona
Granada	5100	200	48	Granada
Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia
Biscay and Ipulcoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa
Asturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo
Murcia	3660	87	67	Murcia
Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampeluna
In the Medi- terranean.				
Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca
Ivica I.	625	37	20	Ivica
Minorca	520	41	20	Citadella
Total	150,763			

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

Spain has also been subdivided in the following manner :

Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title.	Chief town.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Galicia	{ Compostella Mondonedo Lugo Ortense Tuy	Archbishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric Territory	Compostella Mondonedo Lugo Ortense Tuy	Rivadavia. Betanzo. Vigo. Ferrol. Coruna.
Principality	Asturia	{ Asturia Asturia	de Oviedo de Santillana	Oviedo Santillana	Aviles. St. Vincent.
Lordship	Biscay	{ Biscay Guipulcoa Alava	Proper	Bilboa Tholosa Vitoria	St. Sebastian. St. Andero. Laredo
Kingdom.	Navarre	{ Pampeluna Olita Tudela Estella Sanguessa	Majorship Majorship Majorship Majorship	Pampeluna Olita Tudela Estella Sanguessa	

Title.	Prov.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Chief town.	Considerable towns.
Province	Old Castile	Burgos	District	Burgos	Rea, Aranda, Calzadilla, and St. Domingo.
		Rioxa	District	Logronno	
		Calahorra	District	Calahorra	
		Soria	District	Soria	
		Osma	District	Osma	
		Valadolid	District	Valadolid	
		Segovia	District	Segovia	
		Avila	District	Avila	
		Signensa	District	Signensa	
	New Castile	N. of the Tajo		Madrid	
		Upon the Tajo		Toledo	
		E. of Toledo		Cuenca	
		On the Guadiana		Ciudad Real	
		E. of Madrid		Alcala de Henarez	
		Frontiers of Valencia		Almanza	
		N. W. of Madrid		Escorial	
		N. E. of Madrid		Guadalaxara	
		N. E. of Madrid		Brihuega	
		La Mancha S.			
		La Sierra E.		Calatrava	
		On the Guadiana		Villena Requena	
		Frontiers of Valencia			
Kingdom	Aragon	Saragossa	Archbishopric	Saragossa	Calatuid and Boria.
		Jaca	Bishopric	Jaca	
		Huesca	Bishopric	Huesca	
		Balbastro	Bishopric	Balbastro	
		Taracona	Bishopric	Taracona	
		Albarasin	Bishopric	Albarasin	
		Teruel	Bishopric	Teruel	
		Sobarbe	Bishopric	Ainsa	
Principality	Catalonia	Barcelona	District	Barcelona	Maurella.
		Urgel	District	Urgel	
		Balaguer	District	Balaguer	
		Lerida	District	Lerida	
		Tortosa	District	Tortosa	
		Girone	District	Girone	
		Tarragona	District	Tarragona	
		Lampredan	District	Roses	
		Vich	District	Vich	
		Cardonna	District	Cardonna	
		Solsonna	District	Solsonna	
		Puycerda	District	Puycerda	
Kingdom	Valencia	Xucar	District	Valencia	Segorbe, Xativa, Alicante, Dena, Gandia, Morvedro, Villareal, Alcala.
		Millaros	District	Villa Hermosa	
		Segura	District	Origula	
Province	Leon	North of the Douro		Leon	
				Palencia, or Placencia	
				Toro	
				Zamora	
				Astorgo	
				Salamanca	
		South of the Douro		Alva	
				Ciudad Rodrigo	



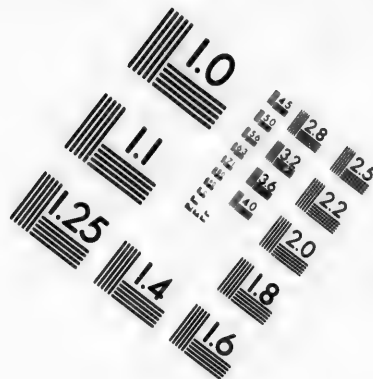
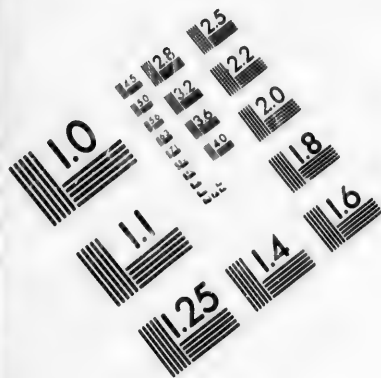
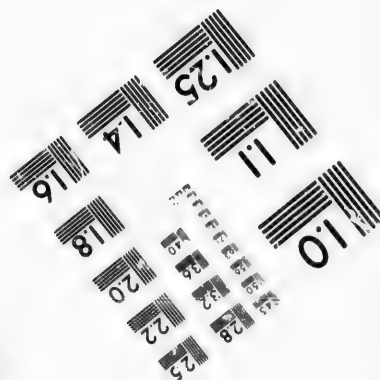
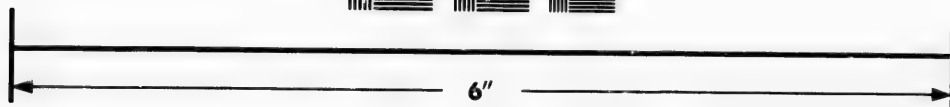
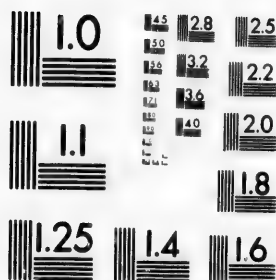


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Title.	Prov.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Chief town.	Considerable towns.
Province	Extremadura	On the Guadiana		Merida	
		North of the Tajo		Badajoz	
				Placentia	
		Between Tajo and Guadiana		Coria	
				Truxillo	
Province	Extremadura	South of the Guadiana		Lenera, or Ellenera	
		On the Tajo		Alcantara	
		On the Guadiana		Medelin	
Kingdom	Murcia	Murcia	District	Murcia	
		Lorca	Proper District	Lorca	
Kingdom	Murcia	Carthagera	District	Carthagera	
					Cara-vaca & Mula.
Kingdom	Granada	Granada	Archbishopric	Granada	
		Malaga	Bishopric	Malaga	
		Almeria	Bishopric	Almeria	
		Guadix	Bishopric	Guadix	
Province	Andalusia	Seville	Archbishopric	Seville	
		Jaen	Bishopric	Jaen	
		Corduba	Bishopric	Corduba	
		Medi. Sidonia	Duchy	Medi. Sidonia	
Province	Andalusia			Cadiz, Gibraltar, St. Mary, Baeza, Offuna, St. Lucar, &c.	

[ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. It was about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whose ancient history, at least the interior part of it, we know less than that of Spain.

[CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; though those towards the north and north-east are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller shiver.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found some scarcity of it, by their diffuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which I shall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. Her wines, especially her sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners; and Dr. Busching says, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raisins to the amount of 268,759l. sterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of its soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain: and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a most curious detail of their oeconomy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the Public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and

herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep so exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000 l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

This country is much infested with locusts; and Mr. Dillon observes, that in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes appeared in the air in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the finest summer day of Estremadura, been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn field, or a garden, at a considerable distance; and which they will ravage almost in an instant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

The waters (especially those that are medicinal) of Spain are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, especially at Alhambra in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous: the chief, and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France, and the road over the pass that separates Roussillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ferrado, or Mount Scie, words which signify a cut, or sawed mountain; and is so called from its singular and extraordinary form: for it is so broken and divided, and so crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a distant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is, never to forsake it. When the mountain is first seen at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain; and the whole composes an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in

height*. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not very distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine service dine together. They meet also at this hermitage, on the days of the saints to which their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and reclusive manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, nor do they ever eat flesh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of professed monks there, is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] These are the Duero, formerly Durus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivir, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: for when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fishes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne,) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthage, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca in that island, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

* Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and observes that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a saw.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamines, crystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spanish gun barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongst the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Cæsar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. These mines have now disappeared; but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } BY SEA AND LAND. } The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and serviceable. The king does all he can to monopolise the finest breeds for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull-fights were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that pester Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given several other causes, such as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000, so that England is three times as populous as Spain, considering its extent.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants. This is the true reason why many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments.

*See the history of the Spaniards
from 20 to 25*

it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years past, we know of no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprising, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish between the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, and who besides their fortune telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians a more sullen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadoes of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The new Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation; the old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient simplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragoneses are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly earned subsistence."

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reason-

ably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase their beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions, and thrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have said, it is more than probable that the vast pains taken by the government of Spain, may at last eradicate those customs and habits among the Spaniards that seem so ridiculous to foreigners. They are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and traveling, which they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-seais, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the forms and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon asses, for want of horses.

RELIGION.] The Roman Catholic is the exclusive religion of Spain, and it is in those countries of the most intolerant character. All other denominations of christians, as well as the Jews, are frequently exposed to persecution, but much more in former times than at present, the least deviation from what was esteemed the Orthodox faith, being liable to be punished with loss of liberty, and in some instances

even of life. The power of the Court of Inquisition, established in Spain in 1478, has however been diminished in many respects by the interference of the civil power. Besides the supreme Court of Inquisition at Madrid, there are 18 inferior tribunals in the several provinces of the monarchy who are subordinate to it. The whole of the canon law is here in force, and the power of the pope is still very extensive. It is supposed that the clergy amount at present to 200,000 persons, half of which are monks and nuns, distributed in 3000 convents. The possessions of the church are very ample, that of the archbishop of Toledo alone, is of considerable amount. There are 8 archbishops and 46 bishops; in America 6 archbishops and 28 bishops; in the Philippine Islands, one archbishop and 3 bishops. All these dignities are in the gift of the king. Fifty two inferior dignities and offices are in the gift of the pope.

[ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. sterling per annum, but the Spanish court hath now many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, &c. and premiums to the societies of agriculture. This archbishopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions, and it is asserted, that there is not a bishopric in Spain but hath some body or other quartered upon it, and the second rate benefices are believed to be in the same predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a sameness in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

[LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a most majestic and expressive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who understand it the best, prize it the most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translators; and Cervantes speaks almost as awkward English, as Shakespeare does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Pater-noster run thus; *Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; bagase tu voluntad, assien la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tû es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progress in the polite arts which they otherwise would: but the greatest impediment to literature in Spain, is the despotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Alcala, in 1549, listed in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He wa

in prison for debt, when he composed the first part of his history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the best writers of his age, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes, 4to, two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had settled themselves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental style of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themselves much to Roman literature: but Alvaro of Cordova complains, that, in his time, the Spaniards had so totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even amongst a thousand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter. The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then so great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compose verses with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themselves. About this time the Spanish Jews made a considerable figure in literature, which was promoted by masters from Babylon, where they had academies supported by themselves. In the year 967 Rabbi Moses, and his son Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were sold as slaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who established a school in that city, of which Rabbi Moses was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, desirous of returning back to his own country; but the Moorish king of Cordova would not give his consent, rejoicing that his Hebrew subjects had masters of their own religion at home, without being under the necessity of receiving them from a foreign university, and every indulgence was granted them with respect to their worship. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college over which he had presided was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets issued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spanish Jews had also flourishing schools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from thence arose the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of speech, that have crept into the Castilian language, and form a conspicuous part of its phraseology. To these Jews the Spanish language is indebted for a curious version of the Hebrew books of the old Testament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spanish letter.

The Spanish writers also boast of their Trobadeurs as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of a famous work the *Arte de la Gaya Ciencia*, which comprehends a system of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, besides describing all the ceremonies of the Trobadours at their public exhibitions. That nobleman was also the author of a translation of the *Æneid* of Virgil into Spanish verse. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was also much celebrated as a poet in his own time: his poems have passed through a variety of editions, the first of which was printed at Saragossa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was also a poet of considerable merit; he translated some of the Latin poems into Spanish, and published a piece on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragossa in 1516. Boscan, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spanish poets, also obtained

great reputation in their own country. But the most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakespeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he disregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taste of the age, than to the rules of criticism. His lyric compositions, and fugitive pieces, with his prose essays, form a collection of fifty volumes, besides his dramatic works, which make twenty-six volumes more; exclusive of four hundred scriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was also a dramatic writer of considerable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a dissertation on the Phenician language, may be placed in the first line of Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive. If it should happen the Spaniards could disengage themselves from their abstracted metaphysical turn of thinking, and from their present tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At present, it seems, that the common education of an English gentleman would constitute a man of learning in Spain, and should he understand Greek, he would be quite a phenomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; Palomino in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand and the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques, Nurillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke, Ribeira, and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonfus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, some of which are very magnificent. Most of the nobility of Spain send their sons to be educated here. The rest are, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesda, Saragossa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The former of these consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman

Handwritten notes:
 The former of these consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman

way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the greatest curiosities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height, the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768 out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) destroyed by Hannibal, are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter, some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the most entire, as well as the most stately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1422, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone; the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble bas-reliefs. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and cieling, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. The most curious place within, that perhaps exists in Europe. Here are several baths, the walls, floor, and cieling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part; but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid, was opened to the public by his majesty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beasts at present

is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeiras, and the Alpuzara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for shew, convenience being little considered: thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold. Ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marbles. The other royal palaces round it are designed for hunting-seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casita del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, cut across in different parts, by allies of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of those alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees; one double row on the right and one on the left, which renders the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough

25 Mi. South of Madrid

to admit of four coaches abreast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between those alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds, and thousands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues, and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the sea, which supplies the fountains: this reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron pallisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basins are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the formal French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume, and it is said, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 366, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones, surpassing all imagination. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes, besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12000*l*. The mausoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet in diameter incrusted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are most amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Lawrence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such a utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Lawrence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 580. The

height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must however be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houses lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; streets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishops are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost 850*l.* a piece. The revenue of the see amounts to 3500*l.* per ann. but as the bishops cannot devise by will, all they die possessed of, elcheates to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana, is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind; and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London, but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York minster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the presence of king Henry III. The prospect of the country round this city, beneld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, is situated in the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted, and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained in 1714 against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the Emperor for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be nearly 150,000, and they supply Spain with most of the clothing and arms for the troops. A singular custom prevails among them on the 1st of November, the eve of All Souls; they run

about from house to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow, with proper faith and unction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almost circular city, with lofty walls. The streets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houses ill built and filthy, and most of the churches tawdry. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every dress swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain, to the amount of 40,000*l.* sterling a year.

Carthage is a large city, but very few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square south-west of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Dauro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy and the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful, the surplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull fights, is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain, and the environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river: for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes, which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000*l.* sterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, but on three hills and two vallies, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. The most beautiful part of this city is the great square, built about forty years ago. The houses are of three stories, and all of equal height and exact symmetry, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the square, one of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several

eminent men, in stone basso-relievo; among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part spent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thousands that are left, and assists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is now exceedingly ill built, poor and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures of the Gothic kind, now in Europe: its form is exactly the same as that of York minster, and on the east end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter house at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in the possession of Great Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in 1704; and after many fruitless attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success: the last war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss and disgrace of the assailants: though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy nor storms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The Straits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them: notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament

thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca, which was taken by the English in 1708, was retaken by the Spaniards the last war, and is now become a Spanish island again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities, are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. Many of the poorer sort, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings, and coarse bread steeped in oil and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through several provinces. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irish and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk. While the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the shoes, and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandise, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents, and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandise exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise sent thither would yield a great revenue, (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink), were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties."

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of silk, wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandise. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the English, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that those immense riches should belong to the Spaniards, rather than to any active

European nation : but I shall have occasion to touch on this subject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country is in a great degree the result of its government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demise, to any branch of the royal family he pleases. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The cortes or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than that of England, are now abolished; but some faint remains of their constitution are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy-council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognisance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within 15 miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, and twenty-two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates who have served in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years; but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Matulquivir, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000*l.* sterling, though some say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to convenience, that we cannot fix them at any certainty.

They fall upon all kind of goods, houses, lands, timber and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in case of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependance of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign-guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds 70 ships of the line. All along the coasts of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about 32. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children, of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile: and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grantees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grantees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the Golden Fleece," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it, hath many French and Italian nobility: there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of St. James," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. Some attribute its institution to Remira, king of Leon, in the year 837, and others to latter princes, as an encouragement to valour in the long wars between the Christians and Moors. They were divided into two branches, each under a grand-master, but the office of both was given by pope Alexander IV. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-master in their respective dominions. The badge is a cross of gold enamelled crimson, edged with gold, and worn round the neck, pendent to a broad riband, it is charged on the centre with an escallop-shell white. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the "Order of Calatrava," first instituted by Sancho, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions were so considerable as to excite the jealousy

of the crown, to which, at length their revenues and the office of grand-master were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. Their badge is, a cross, fleury, red, worn at the breast, pendent to a broad riband, the whole differing only in colour from the badge of Alcantara: the ceremonial mantle is of white silk, tied with a cordon and tassels, like those of the Garter, and on the left arm a cross fleury embroidered, gules. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*," derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a pear-tree. They were subject to the order of Calatrava, till the year 1411, when, by the sanction of the pope, they became independent. They chose their own grand-master, and acquired vast possessions; but, in 1495, pope Alexander VI. conferred the office on king Ferdinand of Arragon, and annexed it unalienably to the Spanish crown. Since that time the kings of Spain have enjoyed the revenues of the grand-master, and the commanderies, belonging to the order. The badge is a gold cross, fleury, enamelled green, and worn pendent to a broad riband on the breast. On days of ceremony, they wear a mantle of red silk, on the left side of which, is embroidered in silver, a star of five points. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families.

The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*," is said to have been instituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large sums of money. It was at first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it: the badge, which is common to both, is a shield per fess, red and gold; in chief a cross pattee, white in base four pallets red, for Arragon, and the shield crowned with a ducal coronet. This order possesses considerable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Montesa*," was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St. George for patron. About a century afterwards, it was united to the order of St. George of Alfama, by pope Benedict XIII. and so hath continued ever since. The badge is a plain red cross enamelled on gold, worn pendent to a broad red riband, fast wide, and a plain red cross embroidered on the left breast of the outer garment. In the year 1771, the present king instituted after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III*," in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a star of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestments white and blue. On the reverse, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti Et Merito*. The order is composed of four classes, the first class are styled Grand Crosses, and wear the badge pendent to a riband striped blue and white over the right shoulder, and have a star of silver with the badge embroidered on the left side of the coat. The knights of the second class wear the badge and riband like the first, but have no star. The third and fourth classes wear the badge at the button hole of the coat, pendent to a narrow striped riband. The knights of the third class have pensions on the revenues of the order, but the fourth have none. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

[HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably first peopled by the Celtæ from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the posses-

sion of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom between them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the masters.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they cross the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and establish themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelagio is mentioned as the first Old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Asturia about the 720. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their co-temporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept possession of the throne near 300 years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the rest of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees grew weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars continued, which at last over-turned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain at last was divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella the heiress, and afterwards queen of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Christian faith, to the number of 170,000 families. I shall, in their proper places, mention the vast acquisitions made at this time to Spain by the discovery of America, and the first expeditions of the Portuguese to the East-Indies, by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but the successes of both nations were attended with disagreeable consequences.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the Catholic inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church.

He also reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, the withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude*.

Agreeably to this resolution, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, also the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remained with the elder branch, whilst the Empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of the church. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling

* Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns; and chose for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave strict orders, that the style of the building which he erected there, should be such as suited his present situation, rather than his former dignity. It consisted only of six rooms, four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls: and the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one side into a garden, of which Charles himself had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he proposed to cultivate with his own hands. After spending some time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he set out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and last farewell of Philip and his attendants, he set out, on the 17th of September 1556, under a convoy of a large fleet of Spanish, Flemish, and English Ships. As soon as he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground: and considering himself now as dead to the world, he kissed the earth, and said, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spanish nobility paid their court to him as he passed along to the place of his retreat; but they were so few in number, and their attendance was so negligent that Charles observed it, and felt, for the first time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his son's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain some weeks on the road, before he paid him the first moiety of that small portion, which was all that he had reserved of so many kingdoms. At last the money was paid; and Charles, having dismissed a great number of his domestics, whose attendance he thought would be superfluous, entered into his humble retreat with twelve domestics only. Here he buried in solitude, and silence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe; filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete satisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political transactions of the princes of Europe, he restrained his curiosity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he seemed to view the busy scene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference arising from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflection of having disengaged himself from its cares.

New amusements and new objects now occupied his mind; sometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; sometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horse, the only one that he kept, attended by a single servant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who resided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himself in studying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechanism, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprise and regret, on his own folly, in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the intricate and mysterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was seized with a fever, which carried him off, in the 56th year of his age.

bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and unsuccessful wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the history of those countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal asserted a prior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne, and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, by virtue of his predecessor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the war by the shameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics (for in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined), accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of the Imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuses, and wanted to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the two Sicilies, now the present king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

He was so warmly attached to the family compact of the house of Bourbon, that two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude a peace, in consequence of which Havannah was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they

also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy it, but after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without doing it much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English. Other military and naval operations also took place between Spain and Great Britain, which have been noticed in the History of England, but peace hath since been concluded, and we hope happily, between the two nations.

His present catholic majesty does all he can to oblige his subjects to desist from their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned so dangerous an insurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an instance of the necessity that even despotic princes are under of paying some attention to the inclinations of their subjects.

Charles III. king of Spain, was born in 1716, succeeded to the throne in 1759; and has issue by his late queen:

1. Maria-Josepha, born 1744.
 2. Maria-Louisa, born 1745, married 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Austria, great duke of Tuscany, and brother to the present emperor of Germany.
 3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born 1747, declared incapable of succeeding to the throne, on account of an invincible weakness of understanding.
 4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Asturias, born in 1748, married 1765, to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma.
 5. Ferdinand-Anthony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married 1768, to the archduchess Mary-Caroline-Louisa, sister to the emperor of Germany.
 6. Gabriel-Anthony, born in 1752, grand-prior of the kingdom of Spain.
 7. Anthony-Pascal, born 1755.
 8. Francis-Xavier, born 1757.
- The king's brother Don Lewis, is a cardinal and archbishop of Toledo.

P O R T U G A L

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300	between { 37 and 42 north lat. 7 and 10 west long.
Breadth 100	

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by Spain on the North and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle, and south provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The North Division contains	{ Entre Minho Douro and Tralos Montes }	{ Braga Oporto and Viana Miranda and Villa Real }	{ 6814 }
The Middle Division contains	{ Beira Estremadura }	{ Coimbra Guarda Castel Rodrigo LISBON } 39-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon. St. Ubes and Leira.	{ 12640 }
The South Division contains	{ Entre Tajo Guadiana Alentejo Algarva }	{ Ebor, or Evora Portalegre, Elvas, Beja Lagos Faro, Tavora, and Silves. }	{ 8397 }

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink*. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea-breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure, and serviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 pari-

* The port-wines are made in the district round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed under that name in the British dominions only. The merchants in this city have very spacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

shea, and 1,742,230 lay persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium), besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the Jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the interest of their own country, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness, and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is Roman Catholic in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increased at the expence of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted to a state engine for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second two; and the last ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoster runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos Ceos, sanctificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, commo na terra. O paonessa de cadadia, dano lo oei nestro dia. E perdoa nos senhor, as nossas dividas, assi como nos perdoamos a nos nossos devedores. E nao nosdexas cabir om tentatio, mas libera nos do mal. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves, who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the sciences. All the books that did belong to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught in this college. Here is also a college where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering, and when qualified get commissions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santareen are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch, is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders. To these curiosities we may add, that the king is possessed of the largest diamond (which was found in Brasil), that ever was perhaps seen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Lisbon is the Capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation (rising from the Tagus in the form of a crescent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack towards the sea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war. All that part of the city that was demolished by the earthquake, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops in this city are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Portugal are not inconsiderable; but they are greatly exceeded by the imports. The soil produces no more

corn annually than what is barely sufficient for three months consumption; corn therefore is the most considerable article of importation from abroad. As no manufactures of any importance are in a thriving state, the Portuguese are supplied by the industry of other nations, chiefly the English, with almost every article of dress, and with most other articles of use and convenience. It seems that the efforts of government to encourage industry have hitherto been ineffectual. The late minister of state, M. de Pombal, found it impracticable to raise a glass manufacture into consequence, notwithstanding he laid out 80,000 crusades, or 54,000 crowns upon this scheme, and doubled the duties of foreign glass, in order to encourage the manufacture. (See Taube.) A linen manufacture established at Oporto cannot easily be expected to thrive, while the materials used in it must be imported from the Baltic.

To the above-mentioned disadvantages we must add the want of fisheries, which obliges this country to buy by far the greatest part of the fish it consumes from other nations. Its commerce is almost entirely in the hands of strangers. It has imposed very heavy duties upon the necessaries of life, a measure which is very unfavourable to industry. In the year 1784, the Portuguese government, in order to discourage the freighting trade, lowered the duties on all goods imported and exported in Portuguese bottoms by 10 per cent. which it is hoped will be of great use to commerce.

In 1785, the goods imported from Great Britain and Ireland into Portugal, consisting of woollens, corn, fish, wood, and hardware, amounted to upwards of 960,000*l.* sterling. The English took in return of the produce of Portugal and Brasil to the amount of 728,000*l.* sterling. (See the State of Trade between the British dominions and Portugal, from the Accounts of the British Factory, laid before the House of Commons, 1787.) To support a trade which is, upon the whole, much against Portugal, this kingdom has the resource of ready money drawn from Brasil: if these supplies should ever fail, it would be soon entirely ruined, if it had nothing to rely upon but its present industry. Only 15 millions of livres in ready money are supposed to circulate in a country which draws annually upwards of 1,500,000*l.* sterling, or 36 millions of livres, from the mines of Brasil. Since the discovery of these mines, that is, within the last sixty years, Portugal has brought from Brasil about 2400 millions of livres, or 100,000,000*l.* sterling. (See Dict. Encyclop.) Besides these large sums of money, Portugal imports from Brasil large quantities of cacao, sugar, rice, train-oil, whalebone, coffee, and medicinal drugs.

No commercial companies have hitherto been established. The principal trading places are, the towns of Lisbon, Oporto, and Setuval. In former times, when the Portuguese had an extensive commerce and settlements in the East-Indies; their trade to China was important, but it has greatly decreased of late.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals, but the *Casa da Supplicação* is a tribunal from which no appeal can

be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are excessive, and farmed out; but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear these taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandize pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold is 10 per cent. The king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgences and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increased by the suppression of the Jesuits and other religious orders and institutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portuguese government used to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore for many years they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the same friendly connexion between Great Britain and Portugal does not at present subsist. In the late reign, though they received the most effectual assistance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Most Faithful Majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers: but since that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops, so that the military force of Portugal is now again inconsiderable. The naval force of this kingdom is about seventeen ships of war, including six frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Most Faithful Majesty. That of his eldest son is Prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed falter-wise, and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviz, and the second petee, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and distinctions of their nobility are much the same with those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Aviz*, or *Aviez*, first instituted by Alphonso Henriquez, king of Portugal in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was subject to the order of Calatrava in Spain, but when Don John of Portugal seized the crown he made it again independent. The badge is a cross fleury, enamelled green, and between each angle a fleur-de-lis, gold: it is worn pendent to a green riband round the neck. 2. The "Order of St. James," instituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, supposing that under that saint's protection he became victorious over the Moors, and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience, and nove

are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their ensign is a red sword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of Christ," was instituted in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to assist him more powerfully against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand-master till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors to the crown of Portugal. This order is under the same regulations, and enjoys the same privileges as that of Calatrava in Spain: the badge is a cross pattee, red, charged with a cross, white, worn pendent to a broad scarlet riband round the neck, and on days of ceremony to a collar composed of three chains of gold. By the statutes, the knights should prove the nobility of their descent for four generations, but the order is now indiscriminately given to all kinds of people who profess the Roman Catholic religion, and is very little regarded. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in small esteem. The "Order of Malta," hath likewise 23 commanderies in Portugal.

[HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania, and shared the same fate with the other Spanish provinces in the contests between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the 11th century, Alphonso VI. king of Castile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son Alphonso Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings, in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonso was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned 46 years, and was esteemed for his courage and love of learning. His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1240.

Dennis I. or Dionysius, was called the *Father of his Country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Christ, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years. Under his successor Alphonso IV, happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city and destroyed many lives. John I. was illustrious for his courage, prudence, and conquests in Africa; under him Madeira was first discovered in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonso V. about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and in the reign of his successor John II. they discovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and settled colonies and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the East Indies. Emanuel, surnamed the Great, succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. Vasco de Gama under him, cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indostan: and in the year 1500 Alvarez discovered Brasil.

John III. succeeded in 1521, and while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He sent the famous Xavier, as a missionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal the inquisition in Portugal, anno 1526, against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian his grandson succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebastian, being the son of Emanuel, succeeded, but died without issue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony

Prior of Crato was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom, but Philip II. of Spain, as hath been observed in our history of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emanuel, and sent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who subdued the country and proclaimed his master king of Portugal, the 12th Sept. 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals of Spain, and by their repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, they so kindled the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon, the 1st of December 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown to accept it, and he succeeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed, and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them, proved vain, so that a treaty was concluded in February 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England, and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor; and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the great battle of Almanza, in 1707. John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood; and rendered odious by excessive and horrible cruelty. In 1760, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life in a solitary place near his country palace of Belem. Some of the first families of the kingdom were hereupon ruined, tortured, and nearly cut off from the face of the earth, in consequence of an accusation being exhibited against them of having conspired against the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence; and their innocence has been since publicly and authentically declared. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime minister of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a most unbounded authority, and which appears to have been sometimes directed to the most cruel and arbitrary purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his Faithful Majesty into their alliance, and to garrison his sea-towns against the English with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French

threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of these courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese.

Be that as it will, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service performed by the English to the Portuguese, who had been often saved before in the like manner, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most captious distinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portuguese ministers for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portuguese majesty having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter the present queen. One of the first acts of her majesty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppressive nature of his administration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted sundry public measures, which were calculated to promote the real interests of Portugal.

Maria-Frances-Isabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, who was born 1717, by whom she has issue:

1. Joseph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Brasil, born in 1761, married in 1777, to his aunt Mary-Francisca-Benedicta, born 1746.
2. Infant John-Maria-Joseph, 1767.
3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.
4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600 }	between	{ 38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth 400 }		{ 7 and 19 east longitude.

THE form of Italy, renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for, according to some accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the East it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic sea; on the South and West by the Mediterranean sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corfica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Italy.					
To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Furin
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Cassal
	Alessandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
To the king of Naples	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari
	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
To the Emperor	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	ROME { N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
To their respective princes	Tuscany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Massa	82	16	11	Massa
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
To France	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa
	Corfica I.	2520	90	38	Bastia
To the republic of Venice	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Istria P.	1245	6	32	Capo d'Istria
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara
Islands in the Venetian dominions.	Isles of Dalmatia	1364			
	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3	
	Ithaca olim				
	Total—	75,056			

S U B D I V I S I O N S.

The King of SARDINIA possesses PIEDMONT, SAVOY, MONTSERRAT, the ISLAND OF SARDINIA, part of the MILANESE, and of GENOA.

The subdivisions in these territories are,

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Piedmont	Piedmont	Proper	Turin, Pignerol, Carignan
	Vercell	Lordship	Vercell
	Masseran	Principality	Masseran
	Ivrea	Marquifate	Ivrea
	Asti	County	Asti
	Sufa	Marquifate	Sufa
	Saluzzo	Marquifate	Saluzzo, Coni
	Vaudois	Vallies	Fragelas, or Clufon
	Nice	Territory	Nice
	Tende	County	Tende
	Aoufte	County	Aoufte

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Savoy.	Savoy	Proper	Chambery, Montmélian
	Geneva	Country	Annecy
	Chablais	Country	Tonon, or Thonon
	Tarantaise		Moutfriers
	Maurienne	Valley	St. John de Maurienne
	Foigny		Bonneville
Mont-Serrat	Montferrat	Duchy	Casal, Alby, Aquis
Milanese	Tortone		Tortona
	Alessandrine		Alexandria
	Laumelin		Laumello
Genoa	Oneglia	Territory	Oneglia

The dominions of the King of NAPLES.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Lavora	Naples, Capua, Gaeta	Ult. Calabria	Reggio
Ultra Princip.	Benevento	Ult. Abruzzo	Aquila
Citra Princip.	Salerno	Citra Abruzzo	Chieti
Molise	Bojano	Capitinate, or	Manfredonia
Basilicata	Cerenzia	Apulia	Lucera
Citra Calabria	Cosenza	Bari	Bari
		Otranto	Otranto
			Brundisi
			Tarenta

	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Island of Sicily	Val de Mazara	Palermo
	Val de Demona	Messina
	Val de Noto	Catania, Syracuse, Noto.

LIPARI ISLANDS, North of Sicily.

Lipari, Strombulo, Rotte, Panaria, Elicusa.

ISLANDS on the WEST COAST of ITALY.

Capri, Ischia, Ponza, Pianosa, &c.

The House of AUSTRIA possesses the MILANESE, the MANTUA and TUSCANY.

The subdivisions and chief towns in these territories are

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Milanese	Milanese	Proper	Milan
	Pavesan		Pavia
	Navasene		Navara
	Comasto		Como
	Lodesan		Lodi
	Cremonese		Cremona

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Man- tuan	{ Florentina Siennese Pisa	Proper	{ Florence Sienna Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino
	{ Mantua		{ Mantua

In Tuscany is contained the republic of Lucca, and the principality of Massa Carara, subject to its own prince; also the coast del Perfidii, of which the capital is Orbitello, subject to the king of Naples.

The Duke of PARMA (of the House of BOURBON) is Sovereign of the Duchies of

Parma Placentia Guastalla	{ Chief towns. { Parma Placentia Guastalla, Castiglione, Luzzara.
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The subdivisions of the Genoese territories, with their chief towns, are,

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Genoa, Proper	Genoa	St. Remo, Territory	St. Remo
Savona, Territory	Savona	Ventimiglia, Territory	Ventimiglia
Vado, Territory	Vado	Monaco, Principality	Monaco
Noli, Territory	Noli	Rapallo, Territory	Rapallo
Final, Territory	Final	Lavagna	Levigna
Albenga, Territory	Albenga	Spezia	Spezia
Oneglia to Sardinia	Oneglia		

The Duchy of MODENA is subject to its own Duke, and contains

Duchies.	Chief towns.
Modena Mirandola Reggio	{ Modena Mirandola Reggio, Borsello, Carpi.

The Republic of VENICE is subdivided in the following manner.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Venice	Venice	Rovigno	Rovigno
Paduan	Padua	Trevegiano	Treviso
Veronese	Verona	Bellunese	Belluno
Bresciano	Brescia	Friuli	Aquileia
Cremaſco	Crema	Udinese	Udia
Bergamaſco	Bergamo	Iſtria, part.	Capo de Iſtria
Vincentino	Vincenza		

The Patriarchate, or the Dominions of the POPE, are subdivided thus:

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Campania of Rome	{ Rome Tivoli Frescati Oſtia Albano Viterbo	Ancona, Marqui	{ Ancona Loretto Urbino
	{ Civita Vecchia Bracciano Caſtro Orvieto Aquapendente	Urbino, Duchy	{ Peſaro Semigalia Ravenna
		Romania	{ Rimini Bologna
		Bolognese	{ Ferrara Comachia
		Ferrareſe	{ St. Marino
St. Peter's Pa- trimony	{ Spoletto Narni Terni	Republic of St. Marino	
	{ Perugia		
Ombrina, or Spoletto			

Island of Corsica, subject to the French.

Chief towns Bastia and Bonifacio.

Island of Malta, subject to the Knights. Chief town, Valetta.

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheefes, particularly those called Parmesans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with snow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the South being warm, those on the North mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebbia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Tharimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULPHS, OR BAYS, CAPES, } Without a knowledge of these, neither the
PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. } ancient Roman authors, nor the history nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica; and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Satania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal quali-

ties. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } Besides the rich vegetable productions men-
DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } tioned under the article of soil, Italy produces
citrons, and such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they
are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } Authors are greatly divided on the head
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unremitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number*. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well shaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, especially of the better sort, are said to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many

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* Mr. Swinburne saith that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples, amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and naval establishment.

descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dressed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make at present but a very inconsiderable figure in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriage, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them, for a month, or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenced trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of straw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer and peers must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup; like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls, (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night.

We beg leave to add a still more modern description of the national character of the Italians, given lately by the Abbé Jagemann, member of the Florentine Aca-

demey of Agriculture, "Considering the mildness of the climate, the uncommon fertility of the soil, the situation of most towns and boroughs on hills, the excellent spring-water from the Alps and the Apennines, the number of mineral waters and baths, the spaciousness of the streets and houses, the delightful views, the frequent residence of the Italians on their villas, the fragrantcy and healthiness of the air, the temperate diet, the facility of getting cured of diseases in the hospitals, one is inclined to think that the corporeal frame of an Italian, if not enervated in early youth, cannot but be strong, healthy, and beautiful. The handsomest persons of either sex, are found in Tuscany. The Italians, in general, are also endowed with good sense and discernment; apt to despise mere theoretical speculations, and to judge by their own feelings and experience: but education is rather neglected. The chief part of their religion consists in an external observance and practice of ecclesiastical rites, ceremonies, and injunctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflection and experience, will sooner commit adultery than eat any flesh-meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wishes to pass for a Roman catholic, needs only to stick to his window an attestation, by a physician, that his state of health requires a flesh-meat diet; and he may, without any risk, eat flesh-meat in Lent. Such attestations may be purchased in coffee-houses, at Florence. The Italians are very sensual; exceedingly fond of music; little addicted to drunkenness and coarse jokes; impatient of delay in their passion for the fair sex; jealous of the French, but fond of the national characters of the English and the Germans. They still breathe their ancient spirit of liberty and republicanism, and are averse to monarchical government, to which they were subjected by force. Hence a true-born Italian, of an independent fortune, seldom courts public employments; hence their best geniuses too are little known; hence also their almost general inclination to satire, and the bitterness of their satires. Hence their general hatred and contempt for the military service, and for the ministers and executors of criminal jurisdiction. Their dress and their whole conduct, prove their fondness of liberty and ease, and their aversion to constraint, ceremony, and compliments. As so great a variety of enjoyments and conveniences are, for an Italian, so many necessities of life, he must be a rigid oeconomist; but those most famous for their oeconomical management, are the Florentines and the Genoese. Hence their habitual custom of entering into the most minute details and calculations, and of strictly adhering to rules. Hence their peculiar talents and skill for commerce, trade, political oeconomy, finances, their avidity for gain, and their envy at the prosperity of other people. Their resentment lasts only till they have produced a satisfaction adequate to a wrong sustained; they are less irascible than many other nations: but when grossly injured in their character or fortunes, they are capable of every excess. Of assassinations, however, abbé Jagemann recollects only three instances in Tuscany, in fifteen years. From their mutual distrust, an Italian indeed seldom becomes an intimate friend to another Italian; but then their friendship proves the more cordial and lasting. No nation is more compassionate to the distressed, or more ready to serve strangers; yet letters of recommendation ought not to be neglected by travellers."

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the establishment of the Catholic Religion in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy: but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes

care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass which hardly shew their inspiration to be from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the inkstandishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

" I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

" I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

" I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

" I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original sin and justification.

" I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

" I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

" I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

" I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the

* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1545, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the Rising Heresies in the church.

mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them.

"I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to christian people.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and oecumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize."

ARCHBISHOPS.] There are thirty-eight archbishoprics in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present, the Tuscan style and writing is most in request.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia sanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volonta sia fatta, sic come in cielo cosi anche in terra; dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i nostri debiti, sic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' nostri debitori; e non induci in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocchè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, } In the Introduction, we have
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS, } particularised some of the great
men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by those of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Benivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Benbo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions not yielding to the classics themselves. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own person painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Carraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa*, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Italy is the native country of all that is
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library might be filled by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this subject. We can give but a very brief account of those objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence: there are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Colisseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, robbed it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the expence of the inhabitants. They frequently give public spectacles in it, such as horse-races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the Heathen deities. The out-

* Pisa hath 46 Professors.

side of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrustured with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique basin of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over the country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years since, a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which all together form a close and heavy mass. In the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt

chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, bustos, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of their richest effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold, silver, or precious stones.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of Herculaneum. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: the street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side for the convenience of foot passengers. Dr. Moore observes, that the street itself is not so broad as the narrowest part of the Strand, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and convenience. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing some animal. They are tolerably well executed, and on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear surprisingly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for shewing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade, towards the court, something in the style of the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. This has every appearance of a barrack and guard-room; the pillars are of brick covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted; the scrawlings and drawings still visible on the walls, are such as might be naturally expected on the walls of a guard-room, where soldiers are the designers, and swords the engraving tools. They consist of gladiators fighting, some with each other, some with wild beasts; the games of the circus, as chariot races, wrestling, and the like; a few figures in caricatura, designed probably by some of the soldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers; and there are many names inscribed on various parts of the wall. At a considerable distance from the barrack is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are those of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses.

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto, is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The South and West sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. It hath been a volcano, beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate, however then it broke out with accumulated fury and desolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this last eruption the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses, and the balconies, were covered with these cinders, and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly described by Sir William Hamilton, in the Philosophical Transactions. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good; even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that open and active, the mount is less hostile to Naples, that it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own-bowel; for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of Terra di Lavoro*.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and

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* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which lay deep either under the bottom of the sea, between Stromboli, and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of the evil. One circumstance he particularly remarked: if two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to him of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect.

the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

Between the lakes Agnano and Pozzuoli, there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires. The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almost to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking vicissitude. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr. de Luc, the height of this mountain, above the level of the sea, is 2391 $\frac{1}{2}$ French toises, or 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," says Mr. Coxe, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the heights of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland: which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the highest ground in Europe."

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not, like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian state has distinct forms of government, trade, and interests, I shall be obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or, as he is now styled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that island, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple, but very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000*l.* sterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his present Sardinian majesty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his situation, he was esteemed a natural ally, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, is a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000*l.* annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of

30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, where they converse almost on all subjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Austrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria*, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to save expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility: the chief person is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no person is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the same post again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors, all orders of government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have had however lately some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed, continued, and progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to stir from the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the seigniory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors is given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or action they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and of course, they may command access to the house of every individual in the state. They continue in office only one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or state-barge, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's shew. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the state and the pay of the army, which in the time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stola d'oro*, so called from the Robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Mark, of which is the proper place.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houses.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pacha, Antipacha, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Romo, Cremasco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The subjects of the Venetian republic are not oppressed: the senate has found that mild treatment, and good usage, are the best policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medici, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their contents, so that in every respect it is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar-windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. Since the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, brother to the present emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring to the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000*l.* a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side.

Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition, the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling Liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia, are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000*l.* sterling a year, a sum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Austrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the celebrated capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants would afford at present of itself, but a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling, other authors calculate them to be much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the catholic powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings, furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within these thirty years past, there is reason to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houses of Austria and Bourbon shall please to prescribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud, lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects; and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. But this censure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curiosities and antiquities. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structures; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architect-

ture, and value of materials, utensils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolises all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

I have under the head of religion mentioned the ecclesiastical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other subordinate chambers of this complicated jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the commercial exports of the ecclesiastical state are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *a latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-west, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprise, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified,

and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Appennine runs through it from North to South, and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called *Vino Greco*, and *Lachrymæ Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the *Strada di Toledo* at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king amount to above 750,000*l.* sterling a year; but it is more than probable that, by the new established police pursued by the princes of the house of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniseeds, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot ash, flax, cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquisses, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains, at least, 350,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 *lazaroni*, or blackguards, the greater part of which have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they resort to the caves under *Capodi Monte*, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a pinfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples near *Paupolippo*, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burthens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompence. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance; but

the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller, (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribands on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap: but hair plainly dressed is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aside. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppressed with a load of debt; the working part of the community always spend the price of their labour before they receive it; and the citizen is reduced to great parsimony, and almost penury, in his house-keeping, in order to answer these demands of external show: short commons at home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner; and it is scarcely credible what quantities of victuals he will devour. The nobility in general are well served, and live comfortably, but it is not their custom to admit strangers to their table; the number of poor dependants who dine with them, and cannot properly be introduced into company, prevents the great families from inviting foreigners: another reason may be, their sleeping after dinner in so regular a manner as to undress and go to bed: no ladies or gentlemen finish their toilet till the afternoon, on which account they dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of state, and ministers, live in a different manner, and keep sumptuous tables, to which strangers and others have frequent invitations.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marfan war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed: only 126 lost their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greatest force thereof seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the

inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compass on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The island of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and consequently fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount Aetna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain, for of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 are said to have perished. "The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Casal Nuovo, the prince's Cerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loss at about 3000 each: Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but sir William Hamilton saith he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater: 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles west of Leghorn, and hath seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000

inhabitants. It is thought his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000*l.* sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The island of *CORSICA* lies opposite to the Genoese continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPRI, the ancient *CAPREA*, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from East to West, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet *Ano Capri*, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of *Caprea*, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect: on one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of *Sarentum*, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

ISCHIA, and some other islands on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. *ELBA* hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. Its situation is about ten miles S. W. from Tuscany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples, to whom *Porto Longone* belongs, and the great duke of Tuscany, who is master of *Porto Ferrajo*, and the prince of *Piombino*. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tunny, fishery, and salt, produce a good revenue.

I shall here mention the isle of *MALTA*, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called *Melita*, and is situated in 15 degrees E. lon. and 45 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot: the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth,

which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-stuff of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes; under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the distinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-master, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reside on the island, the remainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons are to make a personal appearance. They had a seminary in England, till it was suppressed by Henry VIII. but they now give to one, the title of Grand Prior of England. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear the badge of the order, a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, pendent to a black watered riband at the breast, and the badge is decorated so as to distinguish the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families; or such as can prove their gentility for six descents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are 16 called the great crosses, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marshal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are chosen. When the great master dies, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the 16 great crosses, the great-master is elected, whose title, is "The most illustrious, and most reverend prince, the lord-friar A. B. great-master of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are sworn to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of Sept. there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day 1663, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

ARMS, AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St Peter, placed in saltier. The arms of Tuscany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, semée of fleur-de-luces, or, with a label of fine points, gules.

"The "Order of *St. Januarius*," was instituted by the present king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30, and after the present sovereign, that office of the order is to be possessed by the kings of Naples. All the knights must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be addressed by the title of excellency. The badge of the order, is a cross of eight points enamelled white, edged with gold, and in the centre is a bishop holding in his left hand a book and crosier, and below his waist is this motto, "*In sanguine foedus*;" on the reverse is a book; on which are two red pillars, surmounted with palms, enamelled in their proper colours. The knights wear the badge of the order pendent to a broad red riband worn scarfwise, and a gold star

of eight points with fleurs de lis at the angles embroidered on their outer garment. St. Januarius the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of the order. The "Order of *Annunciation*," was instituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and with those arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy, "Gules, a cross argent." It at first consisted of 15 knights, but afterwards the number was enlarged. At present the number is small, limited by the will of the prince, sovereign of the order. It is counted among the most respectable orders in Europe, the knight must not only be of a noble family, but also a Catholic. The collar of the order is composed of golden roses, enamelled red and white, with lovers knots of the same. To the end of the middle rose is pendent the badge, which consists of three chains of gold encircling an oval, and disposed in knots. On the oval is represented the salutation, as described by St. Luke, enamelled in proper colours. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the order of *St. Lazarus*, and revived and united the obsolete order of *St. Maurice* to it; which was confirmed by the pope on the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks. The badge of the order is a cross pomette, white, upon a cross of eight points; green, and is worn pendent to a green riband.

In the year 828, it is pretended, that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly this saint hath been taken for their tutelary saint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns, and banners. When the "Order of *St. Mark*," was first instituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge, or duke of Venice, and the senate, on persons of eminent quality, or who have done some signal service to the republic. The knights when made, if present, are dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying, "*Esto miles fidelis*," (be a faithful soldier); absent persons are invested by letters patent; but their title, "Knights of St. Mark," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligations by vows as other orders. The badge is a medal of gold, pendent to a gold chain: on one side is the emblem of St. Mark, a winged lion sejant with elevated wings, holding in his sinister paw a drawn sword erect, and in his right an open book with the words, "*Pax tibi, Marce Evangelista meus*:" on the reverse, the portrait of the reigning doge, with the image of St. Mark, delivering a standard to him.

About the year 1460, Frederic III. emperor of Germany instituted the "Order of *St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelary saint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and wore about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Cosmo of Medicis, first grand-duke of Tuscany, instituted the "Order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be grand-masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of justice and the Ecclesiastics, are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled, or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "Order of the *Holy Ghost*," was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with twelve points sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The

"Order of *Jesus Christ*, instituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent prostitution hath fallen into discredit. The "*Order of the Golden Spur*," is said, to have been instituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "*Order of Pius*," instituted a year afterwards, but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are suppressed, and all that the knights of the golden spur, have preserved to themselves, is the title of counts of the sacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a star of eight points, white; and between the two bottom points, a spur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, soon experienced the fate of that of Alexander. Under his successors it was in a short time entirely dismembered. His son, Lewis the Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent islands. But Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he had levied war, and Lewis himself dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his sons Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries situated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great reunited Italy to the Imperial dominions. Italy afterwards suffered much by the contests between the popes and the emperors; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length various principalities and states were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and Gibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people

* Victor-Amadeus-Maria, king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, born June 26, 1726; married, April 12, 1750, to Maria Antonietta Ferdinanda, Infanta of Spain; ascended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their issue are,

1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.
2. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence.
3. Maria-Theresa, born January 31, 1756; married to the count D'Artois.
4. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born December 17, 1757.
5. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan duc d'Aoste, born July 24, 1759.
6. Maurice Joseph Maria, duc de Monterrat, born September 12, 1762.
7. Maria Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
8. Charles-Joseph, duc de Gênois, born April 6, 1765.
9. Joseph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East-India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo (the great patron of the arts), the title of Great Duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief to the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, brother to the present emperor, is now grand-duke, and Tuscany assumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts, to prevent the depredations of the Barbary rovers and pirates.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives which seems to be incorporated with their air. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line, was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success was so surprising, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new source of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his accession to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second being heir apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria*.

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third son of the present king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married, 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Caroline-Louisa, sister to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752: by whom he hath issue,

1. Maria-Theresa-Caroline, born June 6, 1772.

2. Louisa-Maria-Amelia, born July 28, 1773.

The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, went through several hands; the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the Imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last duke dying without male issue; but Guastalla was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and Imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title: that island is now ceded to the French by the Genoese. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effects of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand). It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even since that era the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now to be recovering from their religious delusions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jesus, who were

3. Mary-Anne-Josepha, born 1775.

4. Francis-Janvier, born 1777.

5. Mary-Christina, 1779.

not improperly called its Janizaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other catholic countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign emoluments, which, even since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom.

John Angelo Braschi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

T U R K E Y.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

	Sq. M.
1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.	} 960,060
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.	
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.	

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 1000 } between { 17 and 40 east longitude.	} 158,100	
Breadth 900 } { 36 and 49 north latitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of — — —	Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cheronefus*	Precop Brachistria Kaffa	} 26,200
	Budziac Tartary Bessarabia	Oczakow Bender Belgorod	
North of the Danube are the provinces of — — —	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy Choczim Falczin	} 26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergovist	

* The Russians in 1783, seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty signed January 9th 1784, the Turks ceded it to them with the life of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea. So that the present boundaries between the Turkish and Russian Empires are formed by the river Bog in Europe and the river Cuban in Asia.

(1760 yards or 8200 feet) a burst 3000 English feet (an English mile being 1760 yards or 8200 feet)

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

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Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Myſia	Widin Nicopoli Silifſtra Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia	Belgrade Semendria Niſſa	
	Bofnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio	8,640
On the Bofphorus and Hellespont	Romania, olim Thrace	Conſtantinople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29. Adrianople	21,200
	Macedonia	Strymon Conteſſa	
	Threſſaly, now Janina	Salonichi	4,650
South of Mount Rhodope or Argæum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Achaia and Beotia, now Livadia	Lariffa Athens Thebes Lepanto	3,420
	Epirus	Chimera Burtinto Scodra	
	Albania	Durazzo Duleigno	6,375
On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Dahmatia	Zara Narenza	4,560
	Ragufa republic † Corinthia	Ragufa Corinth	
	Argos	Argos	
In the Moreæ, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the ſouth diſtrict of Greece, are	Sparta	Napoli de Romania Lacedæmon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotas	7,220
	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Loconica, on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia	Modon Coron	
	Elis	Patras Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.	

† The republic of Ragufa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragufians are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years was the grandſignior. They endeavoured alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783, a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragufian troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Ragufa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Ragufians profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragufa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Ragufians is the Slavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The city of Gravosa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Ragufa, are within the territories of this republic, and theſe are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the Mounts, Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Shua, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned have had modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph; the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari, lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stympbalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } Almost every spot of ground, every river,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } and every fountain in Greece presents the tra-

veller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work: but it will be proper to mention some of the most considerable. Among the antiquities of this once superb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with basso-relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the west end is adorned with the battle of Centaurs, in basso-relievo; that at the east end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the outside of the porticos, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: this is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and an half high; in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius, and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus, and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Boeotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth: but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general,

and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long-life : whence the inhabitants were called Macrobiani, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature ; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

CITIES.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople (exclaims one when he first beheld it), and how beautiful? How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufacturers are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all the good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part, is the Beseftin inclosed with walls and gates where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 200, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city; Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities: the tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall with battlements after the oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants

not to exceed 600,000. The city hath been frequently assailed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situate towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asian side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure house of the grand signior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect: in one view are the cities of Constantinople, Galata, and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under **TURKEY IN ASIA.**

ISLANDS belonging to **TURKEY** in **EUROPE**, being Part of Ancient **GREECE.**

I Shall mention these islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with ancient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Euboea, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish gallies lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait: and Castell Rosso the ancient Craytus.

LEMNOS, or **STALIMENE**, lies on the north part of the Egean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemna* or *figillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security; it hath 3 town of the same name.

SCYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or **MYTELENE**, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or **CHIOS**, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says,

"The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were of silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request: and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continent of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a catholic bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODES is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the same name, stands on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is 3 miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passing between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522 after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against 56 storms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant sea, about 30 miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop, indeed most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to such a surprising degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery;

and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALLI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURO, CORFU, FANNU, and others of smaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands in general are fruitful and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, and the residence of the governor-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and its circumference about 4 miles. The Venetians are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is estimated at 50,000, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrant and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its ancient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong,

and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed in past times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they are usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to their own avarice, and the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary: and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Dist. of time from London.	Religions.
Tartary. Russian Chinese Mogulean Independent	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can		3,050,000	Sobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
			644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
			185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
			600,060	Samarcand, and Taffa	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans
					4310		
China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Pekin	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. and Pag.
India beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam, Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
Perlia	1300	1100	800,000	lipahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahometans
Part of Arabia	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahometans
Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Christ. & Mah.
Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Christ. & Mah.
Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burja or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans
Diarbeck or Mesopotamia	240	210	27,600	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians
Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240		
Turcomania, or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
Georgia*	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
Curdistan, or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Scherazer	2220 E.	3 00 bef.	

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with or belong to.
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladronez	Guam		Spain
Formosa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,900	
The Philippines	Minilla	43,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove isles	Victoria Port, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor		Dutch
Amboyna	Amboyna	400	Dutch
Celebes { surrounding the	Macassar	68,400	Dutch
Molucca and	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch
Banda isles.			
Gilolo, &c.	Borneo		All nations
The Sunda isles { Borneo, Caytongee	Achen, Bencoolen	228,000	English and Dutch
Sumatra	Batavia, Bantam	29,000	
Java, &c.		38,250	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon		All nations
Bombay	Bombay		English
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschaka, lately discovered by the Russians			Russia.

* Georgia hath lately claimed independence, and put itself under the protection of Russia.

T U R K E Y I N A S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1000 Breadth 800	} between	{ 27 and 46 east longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude. }	520,820.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, and Mousul.
	3. Curdistan or Assyria	Nineveh and Belis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia	Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Tareffo.
East of the Levant Sea.	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orontes, Meander, Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge of mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in that kind of predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader, that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and

in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY }
SEA AND LAND.

The same may be said of their animals. The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eatings, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their other butchers meat, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vast perfection; their ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons, and particularly because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though the generality seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are with the generality speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of

the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country. If a visier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom enquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter, and six in the summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high-seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high-seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of higher rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependants. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are their usual amusements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear

white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the *cadi*, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of Seraglio of women; but all these indulgences are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (for so they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the *iman* or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband they wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it; some account of which the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any person may be a priest that pleases to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest, or *mufii*, seems to have great power in the state.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS } OF CHRISTIANS. The Turkish government having formed these into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbishop or bishop. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their stations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which seems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster.

Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous : hagia ſhilo to onoma ſou : na erti he baſilia ſou : to ibeſema ſou na genſtez itzon en ta ge, os is ton ouranon : to piſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren : ka ſi choraſe hemas ta crimata bemon itzone, ka hemas ſichoraſomen ekimous opou : mas adikounka men ternes bemais is to piraſmo, alia ſofou hemas apo ta kaxo. Amen.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } These are so various, that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking; and I shall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cæle Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the fordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple;

and one of the stones not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our measure is 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a visit some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing however is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which, have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it must be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shewn by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been

so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the same lady, are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy, and the noted countries of Greece, and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. I shall not amuse the reader with any accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the river Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The seat of Old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think that they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND
OTHER BUILDINGS.

These are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because, they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of Old Alexandria, but it is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an

elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest top of which the citadel or castle is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniencies of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are ~~narrow~~, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens ~~are~~ pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees; but the country round it rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and counting houses. The city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques, public bagnios, which are very refreshing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweet meats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horse-back with a number of servants before them according to their rank. The English, French and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the East, for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified, but the convenience of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the Bafhaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. sterling. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and

bastions, on which some large canon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion, but in the year 1779, they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to support firing. Below the castle by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite to where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, six of which belong to the Georgians, and the rest to the Armenians: the Mahometans who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, and claimed its protection.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks called Damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Canicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is surrounded with a stone wall, a citadel on the land side, and another towards the sea. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Christians of the Greek church, and the place is the seat of a bishop of that persuasion. There are in the town two public baths, and two mosques. It stands on a neck of land over against Tyre, and both form a bay of about 16 miles in breadth. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side of stone, 18 feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half; and Christians and Mahometans make the number of 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves; and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of these countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility and population. Even Palestine and Judaea, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing Judaea in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians*.

Under the government of Sheik Daher the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of mount Carmel, distant about 20 miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill, hath an harbour for small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000; the western part of the town is inhabited by Christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4000. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cæsarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3000, and mostly Mahometans: an old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Sampson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines. Gaza is still respectable, it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: the number of the inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the sea, and outside the town is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, but its chief produce is corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

Whether those countries of Asia could ever be restored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a question with some; but I apprehend that it would now be impossible (let the Turkish government be ever so beneficent) to divert commerce (without which all attempts of that kind must be feeble) from its Euro-

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make a most just observation, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr. Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

pean channels. There can, however, be no question, that a government less brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themselves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other sects of Christians there, partake but too much of the Turkish stupidity. Though they are not suffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horseback, and are subjected to a thousand indignities and miseries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppressors, yet so abject is their spirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are less indolent than their oppressors, it is because they must otherwise starve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, lest it should be discovered to their tyrants, who would consider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These objects are little attended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of their government destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce; and such is the debasement of the human mind when borne down by tyranny and oppression, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all these countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, must admire the situation of their capital upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to all the European nations as well as the coast of Africa. The same strait, communicating northward with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort thither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottom. They seldom attempt any distant voyage, and are possessed of only a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the side of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their jealousies of one another, secure to the infidels the possession of countries, which in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner

secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that an attempt to violate it would shake the foundation of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to trespass on these laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceases to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institutions of the prophet; and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of his majesty, who seldom calls for the head or the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government, are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the grand vizir, or prime minister; the *chiaja*, second in power to the vizir; the *reis effendi*, or secretary of state, and the *aga* of the janizaries, are the most considerable. These as well as the *mufi*, or high priest, the *bashaws*, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. According to Baron de Tott, the revenues estimated on the records amount to 25,400,000*l.* but produce effectively only 3,200,000 to the public treasury. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, not of the Mahometan religion; the rich pay a capitation tax of 30 shillings a year; tradesmen 15 shillings, and common labourers 6 shillings, and 10 pence-halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *resents*. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a

pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy bashaw receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, says, *The will of God and the emperor be done*, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord strait, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts: the first have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Besides those, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was subjected to Russia, was obliged to furnish 100,000 men and serve in person, when the grand-signior took the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding their officers. These adventurers not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in the wars against the Christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury, are called the Spahis, or horse-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janissaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement, these amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than 100,000 foot-soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janissaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand-signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, and well made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-signior, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, hath for some years past abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every

year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem, depends on the taste of the reigning monarch or sultan. Selim had 2000, Achmet had but 300, and the present sultan hath nearly 1600. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katan Kiaga*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the last that is entered serves her who preceded her, and herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand-signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the Harem, which carry the Grand Signior's wives, are manned with 24 rowers, and have white covered tilts, shut alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

When he permits the women to walk in the gardens of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with sabres in their hands, while others go their rounds in order to hinder any person from seeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand-signior, who gives a great reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the grand-signior passes into the gardens to amuse himself, when the women are there: and it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch should take a virgin to his bed except during the solemn festivals, and on occasion of some extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the sultan chooses a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governesses, to whom he speaks, and intimates the person he likes best: the ceremony of the handkerchief, which the grand-signior is said to throw to the girl that he elects, is an idle tale, without any foundation. As soon as the grand-signior has chosen the girl that he has destined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her singing, dancing, and rejoicing to the bed-chamber of the grand-signior, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. Scarcely has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down, and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the sultan does not order her, by especial grace, to approach by the side: after a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governess of the girls, with all her suite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the same ceremony to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called *asaki sultaneis*, that is to say, sultaneis-mother; for the first son, she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her court, as before mentioned. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard, and for her particular service. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned, or maintained with such costly distinction as the first: however, they have their service apart, and handsome appointments. After the

death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old seraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unless any of their sons ascend the throne. Baron de Tott informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother of a Sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman who at that period alone acquires the distinction of *Sultana Mother*: she is till then in the interior of her prison, with her son. The title of *Ba-bche Kadun*, principal woman, is the first dignity of the grand-signior's harem, and she hath a larger allowance than those who have the title of second, third, and fourth woman, which are the four free women the Koran allows.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies *Wanderers*, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries: Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the Holy City of Jerusalem, being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than of the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as it signifies in the original, wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be styled the founder of the Turkish empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of Janizaries was established. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mi-

— *From a Map of the Seat of Ottoman Princes till
the taking of Constantinople; near Mt. Olympus
20 miles from Constantinople*

thruidates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and said to have been shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, for the Greeks; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet, falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled; with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V.: he miscarried also in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575,

by his son Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Tefis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor Achmet was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the Janizaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded, in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the Janizaries in 1648. His successor Mahomet IV. was excellently well served by his grand-vizir, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for 30 years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet II. but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person; after some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene, and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hope of escape, the Czarina inclined the grand-vizir to the peace by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army; but the Russians delivered up to the Turks, Afoph, Kamienieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was translated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious; but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and after that another with the Russians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother Osman II. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother, Mustapha III. who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of

shaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca departed from thence in the beginning of February 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the westward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the south-west of Mistra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand-signior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Mistra, Arcadia, and several other places, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every small detachment soon swelled to a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized, extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortresses. The malecontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli de Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprizes, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraskier, Basna of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula, as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinston, arrived from England, to reinforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, whilst others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spirito, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultane of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they both fought with the greatest fury, and at length run so close, that they locked themselves together with grappling-irons and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire, and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were mostly saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of these ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and run into a bay on the coast of Natolia: the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully con-

veyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of the fire-ships. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that, after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July 1774, a few months after the accession of the present grand-signior Achmet IV. The late emperor, Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the present emperor, to succeed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than any excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janizaries, a corps originally composed of the children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they still continue the flower of the Turkish armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining state. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain any longer in the possession of these once haughty infidels.

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand-signior born 1710, succeeded to the throne of Turkey, 21st January 1774, on the death of his brother; he hath three sons and three daughters.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 4000 } Breadth 2400 }	between { 50 and 150 east long. 30 and 72 north lat.

BOUNDARIES. IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are igno-

rant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy, on the West.

Grand divisions,	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
North-east division.	{ Kamtschatka Tartars Jasutskoi Tartars Bratski	{ Kamtschatka Jakutskoi Bratski	985,380
South-east division.	{ Thibet and Mogul Tar- tars	{ Thibet Polon. Kudak	
North-west division	{ Samoieda Ostiak	{ Mangasia Kortikoi	
South-west division	{ Circassian and Astrachan Tartary	{ Terki Astrachan.	850,000 339,849
Middle division.	{ Siberia	{ Tobolsk	
	{ Kalmuc Tartary Ulbeck Tartary	{ Bokharia. Samarcand..	

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcherefsk, Tigil'skaia Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtschatkoi, Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia from Mongrelia, to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles: the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irdis, Genesla or Jenska; the Burrumpooter, the Lena and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, } AND PRODUCE. } The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and the Russian Lapland are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickesses. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well: but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear, have hitherto been in vain: but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edi-

ble roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Astrachan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the highest in Asia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and those of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here, creates some dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious, when polished with art and skill.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astrachan there is a bird called by the Russians *baba*, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoal, or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, fables, and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } We can form no probable guess as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumstances we must conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. M. le Clerc's account of the Tartars (or Tatars as he calls them) just published is curious. He obtained the information on which it is founded, from two princes and several Mourzas of that nation. Their origin is the same with that of the ancient Turks; and Turk was the general denomination of this people until the time that Zingis-Kan made himself master of the North of Asia; nay, they still retain this title among themselves, though, after the period now mentioned, the neighbouring nations give to all their tribes the general appellation of Tartars. The term *horde*, according to him, does not signify properly a tribe; it denotes a tribe assembled, either to march against the enemy, or for other political reasons.

The beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios, or rather *barems*, of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are

purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circassian women are extremely well shaped, with exceeding fine features, smooth clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which with their black hair hanging in two tresses, one on each side the face, give them a most lovely appearance: they wear a black coil on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the summer they all wear only a smock of divers colours, and that open so low before, that one may see below their navels: this, with their beautiful faces always uncovered, (contrary to the custom of most of the other provinces in these parts), their good humour and lively freedom in conversation, altogether render them very desirable: notwithstanding which they have the reputation of being very chaste, though they seldom want opportunity; for it is an established point of good manners among them, that as soon as any person comes in to speak to the wife, the husband goes out of the house: but whether this continency of theirs proceeds from their own generosity, to recompence their husbands for the confidence they put in them, or has its foundation only in fame, I pretend not to determine. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are also not ignorant of the Russian: the apparel of the men of Circassia is much the same with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are something larger, and their cloaks being likewise of coarse cloth or sheep-skins, are fastened only at the neck with a string, and as they are not large enough to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are in general a wandering sort of people; in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloth, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to strangers and travellers, who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy, cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern and independent Tartars and some nations of Canada in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the south, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia; having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for answer, with a spirit so peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the de-

fence of which they should give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he should then understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in shooting at a mark, inasmuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will split a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deers skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself as it were under ground; and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabbins extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as another servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to their places; nor is it uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are still most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartars, and such as are converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded therein a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent, it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains. For the manners and customs of the other Tartars belonging to the Russian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Catholic religions. Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind.

The Circassian religion is Paganism, for notwithstanding they use circumcision among them, they have neither priest, alcoran, or mosque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure; for which, however, they have certain days, established rather by custom than any positive command: their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest friends, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed, they flay it, and stretch the skin with the



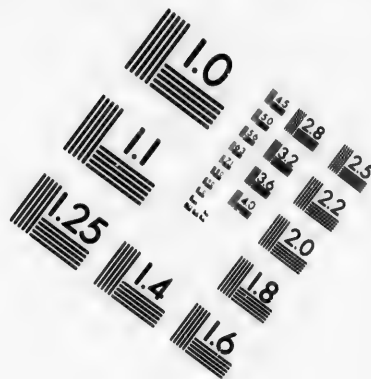
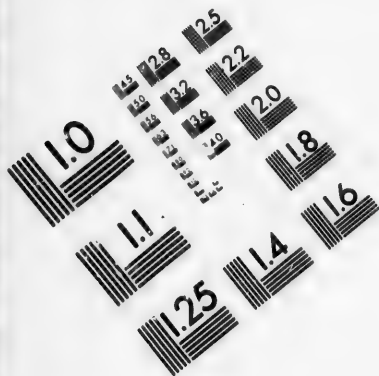
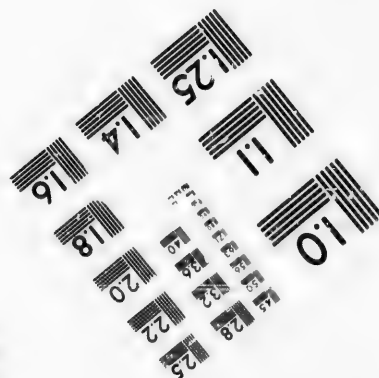
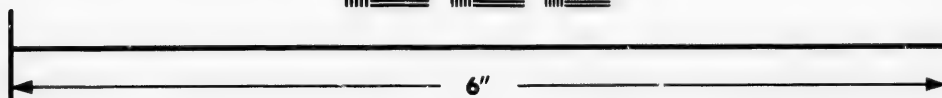
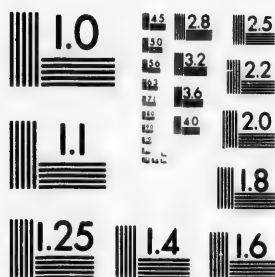


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head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge (to keep the cattle from it), and near the place the sacrifice is offered by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast is over, the men rise, and having paid their adoration to the skin, and muttered over some certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of aqua vitæ, and this generally ends in a quarrel before they part.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the most remarkable, and the most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga, to Korea on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest, where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tayshoo Lama, who in authority and sanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Barampooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774*. The religion of Thibet, though in many respects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and also highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniassees, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive and stretch to Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Shamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him,

* The fort of Dellamcotta which commanded the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, was taken by storm, by captain Jones in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians sue for peace.

or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheless generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as beings vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs: and in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be surprised to find this article among a nation of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astrachan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The cultivation of learning was the first care of the prince, and generally committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues: and their histories, many of which are still extant in manuscript, carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered upon the spot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preservation, and make some figure even at present. The slabode, or Tartarian suburb of Kasimof, on the Oka, seems to have been the residence of some khan. In the midst of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Misquir*, a sort of temple, or building dedicated to devotion. Here are also the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the masarets, or burial places, is a very considerable mausoleum: all which edifices are built of hewn stone and bricks. From an Arabic inscription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Christian era. Near mount Caucasus are still very considerable remains of Madfchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical stones, exceeding the usual stature of men, with Arabic inscriptions. In the environs of Astrachan the ruins of ancient Astrachan are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tcheremischam, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulymer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk.

In the fortress of Kasan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts: the tur-

rets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kafanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old Kafan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen about Tobolsk upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratschik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins of Siberia; and especially all those that are to be met with in the desert of Kirguis, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, says M. Voltaire, in his history of Peter the Great, there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. About 80 miles from Lassa is the lake Palte, or Jangso; of that extent, the natives say it requires 18 days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands, one of which is the seat of the *Lamissa Turcepama*, or the great regenerate, in whom the Thibetians think a divine spirit inhabits as in the Great Lama.

[CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against any enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astrachan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have also lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

Terki, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain on an island formed by the rivers Terki and Buftrow, and is garrisoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Cossacks. It is well fortified with ramparts and bastions in the modern style, well stored with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governor. The Circassian prince who resides here, is allowed five hundred Russians for his guard, but none of his own subjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever since the reduction of those parts to the obedience of Russia, they have put in all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governors, but magistrates, and priests for the exercise of the Christian religion; yet the Circassian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges, but these administer justice in the name of the emperor, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to his imperial majesty.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains 3000 houses, two stories high, platformed at top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous, and Mahometans, governed by a shekel, whose office is elective. The city of Derbent is situated on the Caspian shore, and called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been first built by Alexandria the Great, and that he here received the visit from the Amazonian queen Thalestris. It is now inclosed with a broad strong wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus, Lassa is a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astrachans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Ubec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis, or Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. But some authors have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it be better established than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The former, about the year 1200 made himself master of those regions, which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son Batou Sagin made himself master of Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Russia, till alleviated by the divisions among themselves. But not till Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, were they delivered from these warlike invaders. He repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan and other provinces, and made his name respected in all that quarter.

Tamerlane's memory hath been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet hath been before noticed in the history of that nation, and great were his conquests, and his name, far beyond the limits of his proper dominions. His descent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharis; situated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great, and who died in the year 1405.

The present inhabitants of this immense common, compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate Khans or leaders, that, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over strangers as well as natives, and can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions.

Besides what may be learned from their history and traditions, the standard or colours of the respective tribes form a distinctive mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. These marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance, twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of *God*, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucs and the Mogul Tartars, distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; and, as all the branches or divisions of a tribe preserve always the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the par-

ticular denomination of each branch, those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical table or tree, by which each individual knows his origin and descent.

They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, and the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests in this extensive, and in some places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency; and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese, as we shall mention in our account of that empire. The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence, while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450	} between	{ 20 and 42 north latitude.	1,105,000
Breadth 1260		{ 98 and 123 east longitude.	
to which should be added Chinese Tartary.			644,000

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, and an amazing stone wall, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the East; by the Chinese Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the West.

DIVISIONS.] The great division of this empire, according to the authors of the Universal History, is into fifteen provinces (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situated without the Great Wall, though under the same dominion); each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms.

But it is necessary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other religious sent thither by the pope, whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chinese word, signifying *Middle*, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

BAYS.] The chief are those of Nanking and Canton.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of being the wisest and most industrious people in the world. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China the most delightful to the eye, of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, must be mentioned.

The *tallow-tree* has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces have all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serve the natives as candles; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-silk, which so much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea-plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriance. Notwithstanding our long intercourse with

China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grow on the same shrub, but that the latter admits of some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, are occasioned probably by the nature of the soils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple; and it is certain that some kinds are of a much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over-land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

It is supposed, that the Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at court. The *ginfeng*, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in British America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The *ginfeng*, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is, that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry. The gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] According to some accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants, in China, and all between twenty and sixty years of age pay an annual tax. Notwithstanding the industry of the people, their amazing population frequently occasions a dearth. Parents, who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the south swarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter

rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

To enter into all the starch ridiculous formalities of the Chinese, especially of their men of quality, when paying or receiving visits, would give little information, and less amusement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chinese, since they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is sufficient to observe, that the legislators of China, looking upon submission and subordination as the corner-stones of all society, devised those outward marks of respect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the test of duty and respect from inferiors to superiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility was void of good sense.

The Chinese in general have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world, employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English; but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meannesses to obtain preferment. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and characters of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degree among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the south wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The dress, both of men and women, varies, however, according to the temperature of the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never see each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents; and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable: but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all comprized in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous: according to some of their writers they amount to twenty-five thousand; to thirty or forty thousand, according to others; but the later writers say they amount to eighty thousand, though he is reckoned a very learned man, who is master of fifteen or twenty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as spoken, the latter hath still continued in its original rude, uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

The Chinese characters Mr. Afle observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still partake so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and in short a separate and distinct mark for each thing which hath a corporeal form. The Chinese also use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the same manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right-hand side of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this is likewise read from the right hand.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning, which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacs, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly

retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as men of another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contains the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. History forms a class apart; yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun-ssou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Chu*, that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, or *Tse*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class is called *Tsie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said, that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the natural system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind, in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese who made use of it against Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under foreign articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linsung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of

Xenfi to the Kang sea, between the Provinces of Peking and Lænotum. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Peking and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terrassed and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in these mountains, seems to be fabulous. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Safrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expence. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed those of all other nations. In short, every province of China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be said of these more than that some of them are immense, and there is great reason to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live

without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls; and in several places there are houses built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line, the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and china-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the buildings shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other, which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with cedar brought at a vast expence the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast enclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is said to exceed it both in extent and population. But Canton is the greatest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built,

you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river *Ya*; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by seven iron gates, and within-side of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in the house where they do business, but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 3000 trading vessels lying before the city.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they still do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal materials is a prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity*. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that

* The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourselves.

they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a very instructive entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance, and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is styled, "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, yet their philosophers and legislators had juster sentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits made little opposition to this when they attempted to convert the Chinese; and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name

of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the want of just ideas of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity; but as we know little of their religion, only through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress about a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the emperor who was their patron; for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no figure in China.

REVENUES.] These are said by some to amount to twenty millions sterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled, and very possibly may amount to that sum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chun-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present is the disuse of arms. The Chinese land army is said to consist of five millions of men; but in these are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

HISTORY.] The Chinese pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is said by them to have been the first man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ, 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of

contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family, has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoangti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian æra, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inscriptions, and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy, and that there might remain no earlier record, date, or authority, relative to religion, science, or politics, than those of his own reign, and he be considered as the founder of the empire. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller number for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgment. From these materials the Abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a General History of China, in 12 volumes, 4to. Some of which have been printed, and a smaller work in 12 volumes 8vo, by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, hath been just published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which, indeed, would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. It seems, as if the original form of government, was monarchical; and a succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced thier Fo-hi, whose history is wrapped up in mysteries, thier Li-Loakum, and above all thier Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the continued wars for several centuries between the Chinese and Tartars, and the internal revolutions of the empire, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody

exterminations in some provinces; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was often broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different lines and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their celebrated wall proved, however, but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor, Tsonching, was upon the throne. In the mean time a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper, and made a peace with Tsongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iack, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Hacks: after a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, cloths, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages.

INDOSTAN, HINDOOSTAN, or INDIA on this side the GANGES.

SITUATION AND } **T**HIS fine country, one of the most celebrated in the
BOUNDARIES. } world for its antiquity, population and opulence, is situated between 66° and 92° 30' of eastern longitude, and between the 8th and 36th Degrees of northern latitude, and is consequently, partly in the torrid, and partly in the northern temperate Zone.

It is washed on the South west by that part of the Indian Ocean, called the Arabian sea, on the south-east by another large inlet of the same ocean called the Bay of Bengal, and bounded on all other sides by Persia, Independent Tartary, Thiber, and India beyond the Ganges.

DIVISIONS.] *Indostan is usually divided into Indostan Proper, to the north; and the peninsula called the Deccan, to the south.

These contain a variety of provinces, whose limits have been at all times very fluctuating, from the unsettled state of government.

The Tartar princes, the successors of Tamerlane, as they subdued this country, divided it into large provinces called Soubahs, which were subdivided into Circars and Purgunnahs: the boundaries of these Soubahs having been fixed by the emperor Acbar in the 16th century are tolerably well known.

Of these Soubahs Indostan Proper contained thirteen, viz.

Soubahs or Provinces	Chief Towns, &c.
Cabul †	{ Cabul Gazna
Lahore or the Penjab	{ Lahore on the Rauvec Attock on the Indus, here called the R. of Attock, has one of the strongest fortresses in the empire, built to secure the passage of the river
Moultan	Moultan, <i>Malki</i>
Sindy	Tarta, <i>Patala</i> , on the Indus, here called the R. of Mohran.
Delhi	Delhi or Gehan-abad on the Jumna
Agra §	{ Agra on the Jumna Canoge on the Ganges
Azmere or Agi- mere	{ Azmere on the Puddar was a royal residence Chitore
Oude, Audia or Ahored	{ Oude or Audia on the Dewah or Gogra was the ancient capital Fyzabad on the same R. is the present capital Lucknow
Bahar	{ Patna on the Ganges Bakar
	{ Ruins of Gour or Lucknouti, <i>Gange-regia</i> , of immense extent, situate formerly on the Ganges though the main channel of that river is now 5 miles from it, it was the capital of Bengal 2270 years; the seat of government was in 1540 removed to
Bengal	{ Tanda on the Ganges, now in ruins Rajemal Dacca Moorshedabad } have succeeded to Tanda and become successively the capitals of Bengal Hoogly on the river of Hoogly

* The Divisions of Indostan being very erroneously stated in most Geographies heretofore published, the publisher of this Dublin Edition, has, with the assistance of a Gentleman of acknowledged acquaintance with the subject, given them according to the celebrated Map and Memoir of Major Rennell, which are esteemed of the first authority.

† The western part of this Soubah is inhabited by a barbarous nation called Afghans, transported hither by Tamerlane from the western coast of the Caspian sea; they have been alternately dependent on Indostan and Persia, and nearly overturned the latter empire a few years since, having taken and pillaged the city of Ispahan.

The country of Cathmire was a circar of Calcutta: this celebrated country is environed on all sides by mountains and watered by the R. Behat or Hydaspes, here called Ratab: it is supposed to have been originally a large lake, until an earthquake opened a passage through the surrounding mountains for the waters to flow off: the fineness of the climate, and industry of the inhabitants, have rendered it so beautiful, that it is called the Terrestrial Paradise of Indostan: the capital is Cathmire or Serinagur.

§ The eastern part of Agra between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Doab, or country between the two rivers.

Provinces	Chief Towns, &c.
Allahabad	{ Allahabad <i>Hellabas</i> at the conflux of the Ganges and Jumna Bennares on the Ganges
Maleva	
Guzzerat	{ Amedabad Cambay or Cambaia Surat on the Tapee

THE DECCAN.] This name, which signifies the south, in the most extensive signification includes the whole peninsula south of Indostan proper, but in its more limited sense it only comprehends the provinces of Candeish, Berar, Golconda, Amednagur, and Vissapour; thus excluding the provinces of Orissa, the Carnatic, and the Malabar states, which comprehend that long narrow tract between the Gaults and the western coast, a considerable part of which was never subjected by the Mogul emperors.

Provinces	Chief Towns, &c.
Candeish	Burhanpour
Berar	Shawpour, ancient capital, — Nagpour, present capital
Golconda §	Hydrabad or Bagnagar, — Golconda, — Masulipatam
Amednagur, †	{ Amednagur Ballagat or Dowlatabad { Dowlatabad, a strong fortress
Ballagat or	
Dowlatabad	
Vissapour or Bejapour	{ Vissapour
Orissa	{ Cattac on the Mahanada
	{ Balasore
Carnatic	{ Bishnagar, — Chandeghere
	{ Arcot, — Trichinapoli
	{ Seringapatam, — Gingee
Malabar states comprehend	{ Malabar proper { Cochin Canara { Calicut Concan { Goa Mangalore

PRESENT DIVISION.] Such was the general division of Indostan under the Mogul emperors, but the celebrated Persian usurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor that the Viceroy of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts: these, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Indostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the

§ That part of Golconda between the Godavery and Krishna was formerly called Tellingana, and its capital was Waringgole or Oringal, a fortress of vast extent.

† The western part of this country is called Baglana.

country powers, and partly by injustice and usurpation, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Indostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent irruptions from these inaccessible mountains; taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Mysore, has within a few years acquired by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the Peninsula; this able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Indostan, dying in 1783 left to his son Tippu Saib, the peaceful possession of his dominions, superior in extent to the kingdom of England.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, render the following account of the present division of property in this unhappy empire, absolutely necessary, in order to understand its modern history.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Great Mogul, Shaw Allum, the descendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indostan: he is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent Territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed more than 350 years.

The principal Divisions of this country, as they stood in 1782, are as follow, viz. The British possessions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippu Saib's Territories; Mahratta states and their tributaries; and the Territories of the Subah of the Deccan.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.] The British possessions contain about 150,000 square British miles, (which is about 18,000 more than is contained in Great Britain and Ireland,) and about 10 millions of inhabitants. They consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal	Bengal Subah	}	On the Ganges.
	Bahar Subah		
	Benares Zemindary		
Government of Madras	Northern Circars	}	On the coast of Orissa.
	The Jaghire		
	Territory of Cuddalore	}	On the coast of Coromandel.
	— of Devicotta		
Government of Bombay	— of Negapatam	}	On the Gulf of Cambay.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government was rich, flourishing, and populous before the late usurpations in Indostan; it is finely watered by the Ganges and Burampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive; it is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural situation is well secured against foreign enemies: on the east and north it is defended by stupendous mountains, large rivers, and extensive wastes; on the south by a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, where it is accessible only by the River of

Hoogley; and on the west, though more exposed, the natural barrier is strong. The capital and seat of government is CALCUTTA on the River of Hoogley, navigable by ships of the line; it is a modern city, and though in an unhealthy situation, it is at present one of the most rich, flourishing, and commercial cities in Indostan.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRASS.] The great defects of this government, are not only the want of connexion between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but being totally devoid of good harbours: hopes however have been entertained of removing this last defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleeroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is MADRASS in the Jaghire, called also Fort St. George; it is ill situate, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID in the Territory of Cuddalore is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Krishna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is BOMBAY, in a small island in an unhealthy situation, but well fortified and on a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indostan.—TILlicherry, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob of { Fyzabad
Oude { Lucknow

Dominions of the Nabob of
Arcot, comprehend the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic.

Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the Nabob usually resides at Madras.

Gingee, the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatic Trichinapoli near the Caveri well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.

Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.

Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous: near it is the famous Pagoda of

Tripetti, the Loretto of Indostan, the offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither bring in an immense revenue.

Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly are the capitals of small states of the same name, which with Marawar, are dependent on the Nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Fatty Sing Quick- er in the Soubah of Gu- zerat.	{	Amedabad.
Territory of the Rajah of Ghod		Cambay.
	{	Gwalior a celebrated fortress.

TIPPO SAIB'S TERRITORIES.

Kingdom of Mysore	-	Seringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore	-	Bednore or Hyder Nuggar
Canara	-	Mangalore
Part of Malabar proper	-	Calicut

Chitteldroog, Sanore, Harponelly, Roydroog, Gooty, Condanore, Canoul, Cud-
dapa, &c. are the capitals of Territories of the same name, which have been suc-
cessively conquered by Hyder Ally.

MAHRATTA STATES AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have
one common head called the Paishwa or Nana, to whom however their obedience is
merely nominal, as they often war against each other, and are seldom confederated
except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the Territories of Paish- wa, are naturally strong, being intersted by the va- rious branches of the Gauts.	{	Satara the nominal capital of the Mahratta states, the Paishwa at present resides at Poonah Aurungabad, Amednagar, and Vifiapour, are in his Territories.
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The Concan or tract between the Gauts and the sea is sometimes called the Pirate
coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria and his successors, whose
capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in
1755; by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime
power, and dangerous enemies to the government of Bombay.

Berar Mahrattas, their country is very little known to Eu- ropeans.	{	Nagpour is the capital Balasore has considerable trade Cuttack on the Mahanada, an important post, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the Bri- tish, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.
Northern Poonah Mahrattas governed at present by Sin- dia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes		Ougein, the residence of Sindia Indoor, the residence of Holkar Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt Sagur, the residence of Ballagee.
Territory of the Soubah of the Deccan*	{	Hydrabad is the capital

* Adoni is dependant on the Soubah

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the Soubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Kan, when on the death of that usurper his empire was dismembered: its capital is Candahar in Persia.

Country of the Seiks: they are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Furrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohilla's, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund

Travancore near C. Commorin.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, last four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other part of the East Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

MOUNTAINS.] At C. Camorin commences a range of steep and lofty mountains, called the Gauts or Gettes, which run parallel to the western coast, and assumes various names as it advances northward: these mountains rise abruptly from the low Country on the west, like a stupendous wall, that supports a vast extent of fertile and populous plains, which are so much elevated as to render the air, tho' in the torrid Zone, cool and pleasant. Indostan is separated from the countries that environ it to the northward by several ranges of stupendous mountains that have no general appellation, but are distinguished by various names, in different parts: of these the most remarkable are the mountains Hindoo-Koh, the ancient Paropamisus and Indian Caucasus, on the confines of Persia and Independent Tartary. The mountains of Thibet, on the confines of that country are very lofty, and connected with others farther north, of such great height, that they are supposed the highest in Asia.

RIVERS.] Of the rivers of Indostan, three far exceed the rest in magnitude and utility: the Indus, the Ganges, and the Burrampooter. The Indus, called Sindoh by the Natives, issues from the mountains of Hindoo-Koh, and soon becoming navigable is called the River of Attock; in the upper part of its course it receives

several fine navigable rivers, but none in the lower, where it crosses a flat open country, and falls into the Arabian sea, by several channels, the chief of which is called the River of Mehran. These channels form and intersect a large triangular island which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers it receives are the Behat, or Hydaspes, and the Hyphasis, which formed the eastern boundary of the conquests of Alexander.

The Ganges, one of the finest rivers in the world, issues from Kentaiffe, one of the vast mountains of Thibet, and after a course of about 750 miles, through mountainous regions little known, enters Indostan at the Defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source; from hence this fine river (which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that is to wash away all their stains) flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger and a multitude of lesser channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, whose base at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The entire course of the Ganges is 2100 miles, and is to that of the Thames as 9 to 1. The navigation of the eastern branch being dangerous is little frequented. The western branch, called the little Ganges, or R. of Hoogly, is navigable by large ships, and most generally resorted to. The Ganges receives 11 rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

The Burrampooter, called Sanpoo in the upper part of its course: This rival sister of the Ganges issues from the same mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary direction through Thibet, winds to the south west through Affam, and entering Indostan flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna; and joins the western branch of the Ganges with an immense body of water, equal if not superior to the Ganges itself.

These two noble Rivers when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen: these channels are so numerous that very few places in this tract are even in the dry season 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than 100 miles.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The Mahometans (says Mr. Orme), who are called
RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. } Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about
ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for so the Gentoos priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a sacred commentary upon it, called the Shabstah, which is written in the Shansecrita language, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who study it, even as our sacred scriptures are written in Greek and Hebrew. But whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the

people, through that change which is incident to all living languages, is not well known.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, and of the most hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain festivals are exhibited in the high-roads and in the streets of towns. The human figures with elephants heads which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands and are enormously corpulent.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great *tribes*. The first and most noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Jewish tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The second in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any one of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into *casts*, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indistinctly decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their forefathers.

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions,

all are under the jurisdiction of religion. There is scarcely any thing that is not regulated by superstition. It prescribes rules of conduct in all circumstances and situations; nor is there any thing almost so trifling or minute as to be considered as a matter of indifference. The original government of the Hindoos, was in reality an hierarchy; for among that religious people, the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood, or the Bramin cast. Nor is it in this instance only, that we find a resemblance between the natives of India and them. Not only were the governments of both nations hierarchical, but in both there was a vast variety of religious observances and ceremonies extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or of indifference; and both entertained the most profound respect and veneration for their ancestors. All the casts acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the East, *chilly*, and in the West, green or Cayen pepper. The warrior cast, may eat of the flesh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other superior casts may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior casts are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury, consists in the use of the richest spices and perfumes, of which the great people are very lavish, and which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one: and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion seems to forbid them to quit their own shores* nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers, are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those

* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of the India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orix, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visnapore into the interior parts of the Decan. And the Indus bounding the Guzarat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised among some of high cast and condition, though much less frequently than formerly, and it is said, that the Bramins now do not encourage it.

One particular class of women are allowed to be openly prostituted: these are the famous dancing girls. Their attitudes and movements are very easy, and not ungraceful. Their persons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic lasciviousness themselves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the most voluptuous desires to the beholders.

The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and remarkably honest and humane: there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and customs, possess nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness, and address. In refinement and ease they are superior to any people to the westward of them. In politeness and address, in gracefulness of deportment, and speech, an Indian is as much superior to a Frenchman of fashion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgo-master of Dort. A Frenchman's ease is mixed with forward familiarity, with confidence, and self-conceit; but the Hindoos, especially those of the higher casts, are in their demeanour easy and unconstrained still more than even a French courtier, and their ease and freedom is reserved, modest, and respectful.

Their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness. Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of close-bodied gown, like our women's gowns and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and the tight drawers which come down to their ancles. Hence the dress of the men gives them in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather masculine: such is the influence of habit and custom on human sentiments; an influence which extends to matters of taste, and to objects of higher importance.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces consists in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harems. The harems or zenanas, that is, the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their necks, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and around their ancles.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins. If the

Bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind: and whatever may be the cause, a recent traveller among them, observes, it is certain, that death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, say the philosophers of India of the present times, is a *vacuum*. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires. It is better, say the Hindoos, to sit than to walk, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals sentenced to death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but the shedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government: but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into all eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet

they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. These are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable, that these representations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel that contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at least at a foot's distance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by stagnating water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

Mr. Dalrymple observes, according to the Gento constitution, land (houses and gardens excepted) is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the several villages; each of which are supplied with their respective public officers, as the headman, to execute justice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village; the corn-meter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the Pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks, or reservoirs of water, and the rest distributed among the community: but we understand that the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, particularly, by farming the circar, or government shares.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Bramins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, that all the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guaranteed by the present lawless emperor, is said to be founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country. We are, however, sorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the servants of the East India Company towards the natives, and nor properly punished or checked, either by the directors or the British legislature, has

in too many instances been highly dishonourable to the English name, and totally inconsistent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteristic.

It may be here proper just to observe, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER } BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses. The capital is Moultan, about 800 miles, by the course of the river, from the sea.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive, as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. Its natural situation, (as described by major Rennel, late surveyor-general in Bengal) is singularly happy with respect to security from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east it hath no warlike neighbours, and hath

moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extensive wastes towards those quarters, should an enemy start up. On the south is a sea coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is of difficult access in an extent of 300 miles. Only on the west, can an enemy be apprehended, but there the natural barrier is strong, and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indostan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is estimated to be the storehouse of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, villages, and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is situated on the river Hugly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the Company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the Company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the Company. But in 1773, an act of parliament, was passed to regulate the affairs of the East-India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act the governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government, of all the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the company should remain possessed of them. The governor-general and council so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governor-general and counsellors were likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William; to consist of a chief justice, and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty: these are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort William, and its limits; and the factories subordinate thereto. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the people; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. For the subsequent regulations respecting the East India territories and company, we refer to our account in the History of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The India nabob, or soubah, quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of

the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenzy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was soon concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the nabob Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mbir Jasseir, one of his generals, and who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Muxadabad, or Moorshedabad: Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity. This zemindary which includes also the circars of Gazypour and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks was transferred to the English.

Chandenagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and also was obliged to surrender in the last war, but restored by the peace. Hugly, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugly, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagna, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or soubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal; Sindia and Holkar divide the largest part of it. The capital of the former is Ougein, and of Holkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces, and its chief city is Ratipor. The province of Kandish included that of Berar and part of Orixia, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flourishing city, and it carries on a vast trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattack is the capital of Orixia, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the Northern circars, and belongs to the Berar Rajah Moodajee Boosla, whose dominions are very extensive. Of the five Northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly are in possession of the English, and Gunton is in the hands of the Nizam.

I shall speak of those provinces, belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now, the case is much altered, the prince of the country being scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Trichinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tanquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by a rajah under the English protection.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Christina, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapur, or Visipour, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Mellaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles. If Tanjore, Marrawar, Trichinopoly, Madura, and Tinnevely be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatic, the length thereof from north to south is 570 miles, but no where more than 110 wide, and chiefly no more than 80. The capital of the Carnatic is Bishnagar, and of our ally the nabob, Arcot, whose dominions commence on the south of the Guntoo circar, and extend along the whole coast of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which had been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The white Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, doth not extend much more than 40 miles round, and is of little value for its product. Eighty thousand inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependant upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these thirty years; but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most iniquitous practices. There seems to have been some fundamental errors in the constitution of the East India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governors and other servants as be-

ing plundered from the company, and accordingly sent out superintendants to control their governors and overgrown servants, and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there. As this is a subject of the greatest importance that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The English East India company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted, but fortunate successes, of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads: and some of their own servants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the company: part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expences in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs they have assisted.

This company has exercised many rights appropriated to sovereignty; such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the English ministry and parliament have repeatedly interfered: in order to regulate the affairs of the company, a board of control at home is at length established. It has also been hoped, that in consequence of this interference of the government, such measures may be taken with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the company permanent and national.

I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is subject to a prince, called Nizam or soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda is in this province. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprises the eastern part of Dowletabad. East-south-east of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Naripore. The province of Orixá, from whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Boonslah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Marattas. In this province stands the idolatrous temple of Jagaryunt, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500 lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

Major Rennell observes, that there is a void space between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Orissa, and the northern circars of near 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and that it is not likely to be filled up unless a great change takes place in European politics in India. Our possessions in the northern circars extend only 70 miles by land, and in some places not more than 30, which form a slip of 350 miles in length, bounded towards the continent by a ridge of mountains. Within these, and towards Berar is an extensive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have scarcely any communication. Though surrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in useful ma-

nufactures, it is said, that the few specimens of the miserable inhabitants of this tract who have appeared in the circars, use no covering but a wisp of straw. This wild country extends about 160 miles, and the first civilized people beyond them are the Barar Marattas.

The country of the Deccan comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Vifiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; and since their reduction by Aurengzebe, or his father, have been subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their exact situation and extent, but by the assistance of major Rennell's late memoirs of a map of Indostan, and his new drawings, we have gratified our readers with a new map of the country, which we hope will be found clear and accurate. The principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad: the latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain of about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda, and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amedabad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Vifiapour is a large province, the western part is called Konhan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Vifiapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim Tropol, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East-India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East-India company; and the island is still divided into three Roman-catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called catholic Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader scarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East-Indies, called Sea-poys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested. Here, be-

sides Europeans of all countries, you meet with Turks, Persians, Arabians, Armerians, a mixed race, the vilest of their species, descended from the Portuguese, and the outcasts from the Gentoo religion, &c. and also captives that are slaves to every other tribe. The Turks that resort to this place on account of trade, are like the rest of their countrymen, stately, grave, and reserved; and honest in their dealings, though merchants. The Persians are more gay, lively, and conversible, but less honest in matters of trade, than the saturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any subject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a musical cadence; but they are the most dishonest of all. The Armenians are generally handsome in their features, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind and beneficent. They are a kind of Christians, and an honour to that sect, beyond numbers that go from England.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits, upon this island, equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions on this coast, is under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendour of the government. The rich peninsula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. Canoree lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Canorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of rajah; and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the company formerly made a peace, but with whom their servants soon after embroiled them, and who lately made a violent irruption into the Carnatic, took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war, is said to be a native of Myfore, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic; and the Christians of the apostle St. Thomas live at the foot of the Gatti mountains. The dominions of Tippoo Saib, son of Hyder Ally, comprehend generally the provinces of Myfore, Bednore, Zaimbetore, Zanarec, and Dindigal, besides his acquisition to the northward from the Marattas: they are at

least 400 miles in length, and in the breadth from 290 to 130, so that he hath the largest share in the Peninsula.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellichery, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance, blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Before I take my leave of India, it may be proper to observe, that in the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

History.] The first invader of this extensive and fruitful country, worthy to be noticed, was the famous Alexander of Macedon, and where the fortrefs of Rotas now stands on the banks of the Behat, he is supposed to have put in execution his stratagem for crossing the river, whilst the opposite shore was possessed by Porus. Zinghis Khan also directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor to forsake his capital. The seat of government was, indeed, often changed, sometimes by necessity and at others by choice, as from Gazna to Delhi, to Lahore, to Agra, and to Canage. This last place was, in the reign of Porus, and for ages, the capital of Indostan, but is now reduced to a middling town, though the ruins are of great extent*.

The next conqueror is Tamerlane, who crossed the Indus nearly at the same place with Alexander, but long before Tamerlane, Mahometan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in India. Valid, the Sixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India: so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Indostan in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Christian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indostan is represented to be immense. The successors of this

* Supposed to be the Palibrotha of the ancients. In the 6th century it contained 30,000 shops in which beetel nut was sold, and there were also 60,000 bands of musicians and singers, who paid a tax to government.

Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Kofrou Schah, the 13th and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was deposed by Kuffain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges.

The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and despotic princes, that they committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. It is highly worthy of observation, that the provinces of Indostan, have seldom continued under one head during a period of 20 years, from the earliest history down to the reign of Acbar in the 16th century. Bengal, Guzerat, and other provinces were in turn independent, and sometimes the empire of Indostan was confined within the proper limits of the province itself. So that the history of it furnishes an excellent lesson to princes not to grasp at too much dominion, and to mankind to circumscribe the ambitious undertaking of their rulers*. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninsula Within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already said of this empire, Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which, while in his hands, preserved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it descended to his weak indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his ne-

* Some parts of the empire were 1000 miles distant from the seat of government. The English conquits in India met those of Tamerlane in a point equidistant from the mouths of the Ganges and Indus, in the year 1774, for they closed their campaign that year at Loldong, 1100 miles from Calcutta.

phews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peythor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had raised all the money he could in Delhi, he re-instated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been

ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdalla, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army and march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth, drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first brought upon them. Prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the vizier, with other leading men, in this extremity took the field, with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary to the east, and Candahar is the capital.

The Marattas, a warlike nation, possessing the south-western peninsula of India*, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout, or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld, in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Marattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion. Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much more disorder and confusion prevailed in this country, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Allum or Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the house and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

It is, however, the interest of the East India Company, that their governments in India should interfere as little as possible in the domestic or national quarrels of the country powers, and that they should always endeavour to be in a state of peace and tranquillity with their neighbours. But these maxims of sound policy they have not adhered to; the governors and servants of the East India Company have unnecessarily, and sometimes very iniquitously, embroiled themselves with the country powers, and engaged in wars of a very pernicious and indefensible nature. The wars into which they have entered with the Marattas, and with that enterprising prince Hyder Ally, now dead, but succeeded by a warlike son, Tippo Saib, have been attended with an enormous expence, and been extremely prejudicial to the interests of the company, and the nation at home. By temporary plans of violence and injustice, and sometimes disregarding their own treaties, they have forfeited the good opinion of the natives, and by exciting the indignation of the country princes against them, greatly lessened the security of the possessions of the company.

The emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul, or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne, &c.* but he is never crowned.

* Malwa, Berar, Orissa, Candeish, and Visapour, the principal part of Amednagur or Dowlatabad, half Guzerat, and a small part of Agimere, Agra, and Allahabad are comprized within their extensive empire, which extends from sea to sea across the widest part of the peninsula, and from the confines of Agra northward to the Kistna southward, forming a tract of about 1000 miles long, and 700 wide. This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs, whose obedience to the Paishwah, or Head, is merely nominal, and they are often at war with themselves, and also with their head. Their power hath been on the decline for the last 20 years.

THE PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the
FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1000 }	between { 1 and 30 north latitude. 92 and 109 east longitude. }	741,500

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chinese sea, on the East; by the same sea and the straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the West. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other districts, subject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-west	{ Acham Ava Arracan	{ Camdara Ava Arracan.	{ 180,000
On the south-west	{ Pegu Martaban Siam Malacca Tonquin	{ Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30. Martaban Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18. Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12. Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.	{ 50,000 170,000 48,000 112,000
On the north-east	{ Laos Cochin China	{ Lanchang.	{ 59,400
On the south-east	{ Cambodia Chiampa	{ Thoanua Cambodia Padram.	{ 61,900 60,200

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, some preferring that of the southern, and some that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and Westerly *monsoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Those run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sanpoo or Burrumpooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river Nou Kian.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE }
DIFFERENT NATIONS. } The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables, and in

Avi, a quantity of salt-petre, and the best teck timber, or Indian oak, which for ship-building in warm climates is of much longer duration than any European oak. Teck ships of 40 years old are no uncommon objects in the Indian seas. This peninsula abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics and fair
AND DIVERSIONS. } traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dogs-flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver, and other metals, found in his kingdom. They live, however, easy and comfortably. Almost every house-keeper has an elephant for the convenience of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in this peninsula are commonly very fond of shew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome; for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey. Notwithstanding the great antiquity of most Indian nations, it is said, on the veracity of some who have seen them, that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people (if solitary savages roaming through woods in quest of prey, deserve the name of people) that appear to be in the very first stage of society. They are the only people in the known world that go absolutely naked, without the smallest covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruit, which grows spontaneously, in the uncultivated desert they inhabit, in great abundance; and on the flesh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They sit on their hams, with their legs and arms disposed in the manner of monkeys.

At the approach of men, they fly into their woods. They take care of their offspring, and live in families, but seem to have no ideas of subordination of rank or civil government.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, interspersed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose: but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Sanscrita, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Sanscrita records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress, which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of

the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it, through events foreign in this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has for some time declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, }
RARITIES, AND CITIES.

This article is so extensive, that it requires a slight review of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, it hath already been observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Arracan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. The riches of the king when an independent state, were almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandize; so that some thought him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back, holding four soldiers. The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava. Monchaboo was the residence of the king, and not Ava, in 1755. It is said, the honours the king assumes are next to divine. His subjects trade chietly in musk and jewels, rubies and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as those of the Bramins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but that is now subject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam has been often described by missionaries and pretended travellers in the most romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flourishing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and has the peninsula.

of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. We are told that gold is so abundant in this country, that their most ponderous images are made of it; and that it is seen in vast quantities on the outside of the king's palace. These relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other missionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either excessively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely despotic; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus or Peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malaysians, who were formerly an industrious ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans.

The same barbarous magnificence, the despotism of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China; some particulars of which I have mentioned in the general view of this peninsula. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies; but at the same time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, is subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose, that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least that they had, some time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother-empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been said, unless we adopt the fictions of the catholic missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the north-side of the city, conveniently fitted up with store-houses, and office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the best account I have been able to give of this vast peninsula. Its rarities, consisting of houses overlaid with gold, and solid idols of the same metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious stones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we consider the undisciplined weakness of the inhabitants, their superstition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which must render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the universally admitted passion of those people for ostentation, and the many discoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their displaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for those of massy gold.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, conveys among those credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged, that, however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidence to prove, that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended

with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempests, and above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

P E R S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1300	} between	{ 44 and 70 east longitude.	}	
Breadth	1100		{ 25 and 44 north latitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the North-East; by India, on the East; and by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the West.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Esterabad; Sableustan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrosia, and Faristan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chulistan the ancient Sutiana, and Irac Aghem the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

NAME.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman; the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

AIR.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] These vary like the air. The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, fenna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff, not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially,

they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as fomenations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian affa-foetida flows from a plant called Hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich fauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rises in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so incon-siderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } It is impossible to speak with any cer- tainty concerning the population of a coun- try so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear callico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive; consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heigh- ten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent washings and ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat, after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor and set at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great soible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately playing at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadée, or judge, for a wife during the time they propose to stay. The cadée, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Beker, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, which is the very case with us." Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian *guebres* or *gaur*s, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of

Zoroaster, may be highly worth a learned disquisition: that both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the Indian bramias and parsees accuse the *gours*, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the *guebres* devotions. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end, and a large hollow cane stuck in the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the *gours*, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia. The present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

LANGUAGE.] It has been disputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Persian; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak Turkish; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kib der ofmoni; pac basibed mām tu; bayayed padeschahi tu; sehxad chwā-aste tu benzjunāwikib der ofmon nīz derzemīn; bēh māva jmrōuz nān kešāf rouz mara; wadargudjār mara konāban ma zjunankibma nīz mig sarim ormdn mara; wadard ozmajib mīnedāzzmara; likin chalās kun mara ez ešeberir. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both; and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of an hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated of the Persian poets. The former comprized the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Schiras, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in prose and verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhseeb wrote in Persian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two vo-

lumes. Hattî composed in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

At present, learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The monuments of antiquity in Persia, are
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third

of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanseras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the south of Astrachan. It is an open town; but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and vines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Pars, the ancient Persia, and hath a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

[**MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.**] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when, all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

I might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harems, the women's apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to

the taste and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Persia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufactures in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and shew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Combroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English, in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Petersburg is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; but nothing can be said with certainty on that head, till the government of Persia is in a more settled condition than it is at present.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic, and often capricious monarch. The Persians however had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. After saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be said with any certainty in

the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the *Disposer of Kingdoms*. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner, *This act is given by him whom the universe obeys*.

HISTORY.] All ancient historians mention the Persian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here sufficient to say, that the Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arsaces, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, Cheki Adir, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politic, and enlarged the empire, and from him sometimes called Sophis, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty*, ignorance and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hassen, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

* The instances of wanton cruelty, and the most savage barbarity, recorded of some of the kings of Persia, are shocking to humanity, and a striking evidence of the miseries and calamities occasioned by despotic power. Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great, having three sons, caused the eyes of the two youngest to be put out, and afterwards put the eldest to death. He was succeeded by his grandson, who began his reign by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out, and he also cast from a rock his two uncles, who had before been blinded by order of Shah Abbas. The instances of his cruelty were innumerable: he buried alive forty-four women of his Harem, though when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he used to pass his time with them. Sefie, or Suliman, who ascended the throne of Persia in 1656, and was a brutal tyrant, when he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and noses, of those near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked out, or their lives to be sacrificed, as if it were his pastime.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been mentioned in the description of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Marrattas and various accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, according to the latest accounts, still keeps possession of the throne.

A R A B I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1430 Breadth 1200	between { 35 and 60 east longitude. 12 and 30 north latitude.	} 700,000

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Turkey on the North; by the gulfs of Persia or Baffora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	{ — — — — —	{ SUEZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	{ Haggiaz or Mecca	{ MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. lat. 21-20.
	{ Tehama - - -	{ Siden,—Medina
	{ Mocha - - -	{ Dhafar
		{ MOCHA, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	{ Hadramut - - -	{ Sibit
	{ Caffeen - - -	{ Hadramut
	{ Segur - - -	{ Caffeen
	{ Oman or Muscat - - -	{ Segur
	{ Jamama - - -	{ Muscat
	{ Bahara - - -	{ Jamama
		{ Elcalf.

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The

word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by providence for travelling the dry and parched deserts of this country, for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } The Arabians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy com-

plexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be in general a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the deserts. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin is among Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*.

In the Temple of Mecca, or suspended on its walls and gates, are seven Arabian poems, called the *Moalakat*, a fine specimen of Oriental poetry, as to the dramatic pastoral, which have been lately translated into English by sir William Jones: the following stanzas of one of the poems are transcribed, as they serve to gratify the curiosity, and also display a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian customs and modes of living.

1. "Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the stations in Minia, where they rested, and those where they fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of Goul, and deserted is the summit of Rijaam.

12. The canabs of Rayaam are destroyed: the remains of them are laid bare, and smoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the solid rocks.
 3. Dear ruins! Many a year has been closed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed since I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
 4. The rainy constellations of spring have made their hills green and luxuriant: The drops from the thunder-clouds have drenched them with profuse as well as with gentle showers:
 5. Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every evening cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs.
 6. Here the wild eringo-plants raise their heads: here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides of the valley; and here the ostriches drop their eggs.
 7. The large-eyed wild cows lie suckling their young a few days old: their young, who will soon become an herd on the plain.
 8. The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book.
 9. Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad.
 10. I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo?
 11. In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the canals, which encircled their tents, and the Thumaam-plants, with which they were repaired.
 12. How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed; when they hid themselves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair; and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound!
 13. They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine spun curtains, and pictured veils.
 14. A company of maidens were seated in them, with black-eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tudah, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young.
 15. They hastened their camels, till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight; and they seemed to pass through a vale, wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stones, like the valley of *Bejsba*."
- The Pater-noster in the Arabic is as follows: *Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jetkad-das esnâc; tati malacutac: taouri masbiatic, cama fi-ssama; kedhalec ala lardh aat-ing chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalkobalna sibajarib; laken mejjina me mnefcherir. Amen.*
- CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, } What is called the Desert of Sinai, is a beau-
AND ARTS. } tiful plain near nine miles long, and above three
in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.
- From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains, are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muschat, Suez, and Juddah or Gedda. Mocha is well built, the houses very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or stucco that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez, the Arsinoe of the ancients, is surrounded by the desert, and but a shabby ill-built place. The ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs and other articles by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port are shared by the grand-signior and the xeriff of Mecca, to whom this place jointly belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque so glorious, that it is generally counted the most magnificent of any temple in the Turkish dominions: its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life-time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the *Mosk Holy* by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the grand-signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriffs and imans, both of them including offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand-signior for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

HISTORY.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward the north, and the sea-

coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves for subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and is distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the sixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among them, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by a Sergian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers, and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the Eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus

Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachments to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published than a vast many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book called the *Koran*, or *Alkoran*, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, "the Flight."

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians, was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt, and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the most powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms

to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Nipham, Bongo, Tonsa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a most despotic prince, who is sometimes called emperor and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 14th degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China: and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumstance of the Dutch expelling the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese themselves are the grossest of all idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacci, in the Island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their clothes has also remained the same from very high antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff.

Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their victuals are served up to them on a low board, raised but a few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have,

but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture: they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves: instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly: every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness: to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandize they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consist in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, fluffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, east longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, except that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an Oriental Island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains, belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island, the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES, are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese sea (part of the Pacific Ocean), 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manila,

or Laconia; the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintudos, or painted people, and Mestis, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird faligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriance of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultana of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The **MOLUCCAS**, commonly called the **SPICE** or **CLOVE ISLANDS**. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sagoe. Their chief produce consist of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of these islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another called Fort Orange in Machian.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one, and the most considerable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of south latitude, and 120 leagues

to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch, and the barbarities of the latter in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, (the chief town of which is Lantor, Poloron), Rosising, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. In several islands that lie near Banda, and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, because, as naturalists tell us, birds, especially doves and pigeons, swallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the same state; which is one of the reasons why the Dutch declare war against both birds in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other spice islands lying under the equator, and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java Bally, Lambœ, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang, one of which was dissected by Dr. Tyson at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants are said to live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea-coast is governed

by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is divided by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts of the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought by some to be the Ophir mentioned in the scriptures; but Mr. Marfden in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients. The highest mountain in Sumatra, is called *Ophir* by the Europeans, whose summit above the level of the sea is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet. The Portuguese were the first discoverers and settlers, but met with disgrace in their attempts against Acheen. The first English fleet that made its appearance in this part of the world, and laid the foundation of a commerce that was to eclipse that of every other European state, visited Acheen in the year 1602, under captain Lancaster, who carried a letter from queen Elizabeth to the king of that place. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen, and Fort-Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Acheen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes, whose governments are all independent, and their language and manners are very different. The natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent islands, but this island is surpassed by few in rice, pepper, and camphor, and in the bountiful indulgence of nature. It is from this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet, with a stem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. The quantity of pepper produced in the East-India company's districts on Sumatra is annually 1200 tons; of which the greater part comes to Europe, and the rest is sent to China.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca: but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic character, as do the Acheenese. The principal internal languages of the island are the Rejang and Batha, each containing characters essentially different from each other. The people between the districts of the English company, and those of the Dutch at Palembang, on the other side the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages, called Doosons independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, particularly the women, large swellings in their throat, some nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the goitres of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages, independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor plank pointed, and

placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners, they put to death and eat, and their skulls they hang up as trophies, in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but Mr. Marsden observes, it is extremely rare, that an instance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of their chiefs: but this continence is attributed to their poverty. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that of the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands, generally styled Otaheitean cloth. The Buffalo (*carbow*) constitutes a principal part of their food, and is the only animal employed in their domestic labours. The Sumatran pheasant is a bird of uncommon beauty.

Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of **ENGANHO**, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers that entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of **JAVA** belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river *Jucata*, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of Eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendor superior to that of any European potentate, except on some solemn occasions. The city is as beautiful as it is strong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power.

[The **ANDAMAN** and **NICOBAR** islands.] These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessities, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless, inoffensive, but idolatrous people.

[**CEYLON**, OR **SELEN-DIVE**.] This island, though not the largest, is thought to be by nature the richest, and finest island in the world; and is celebrated for being the only place which produces the true Cinnamon. It is separated by the Gulf of *Mannara*, from the continent of *Indostan*, to which it is supposed to have been joined, till torn from it by the force of the waves, or earthquakes; and the shallowness of the intervening channel seems to favour this opinion, for a sand-bank, called *Adam's bridge*, (on which only a few feet water runs,) interrupts all navigation except by

boats. On this bank, and the neighbouring coast, is a pearl fishery, formerly considerable, but now much declined.

This island, which is happily situate for commerce, is inhabited by two distinct nations, the Bedas to the north, and the Cinglases to the south; it is about 250 miles long, and 200 broad; the natives call it, with some shew of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, ~~mark~~, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold, and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and, besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, and Negambo.

Mountains, covered with impassible forests, intersect it in all directions, amongst which Adam's pic rises like a lofty cone, far superior to the rest in elevation, and visible, (it is said), at the distance of more than 100 miles. From this mountain issues the Mowil-ganga, the largest river in the island, which visiting Candy the ancient capital, falls after a course of several miles into the bay of Trinconomale, the finest not only in Ceylon, but in all Indostan; it is capable of receiving 1000 sail of the largest ships in perfect security. Ceylon, though formerly divided into several petty kingdoms, has now but one prince, who possesses only the internal parts of the island, and resides at Deglige, but is called the king of Candy, from the ancient capital, which having suffered much in the wars, between the Portuguese and natives, has ceased to be the royal residence.

The Dutch, who expelled the Portuguese, have possessed themselves of the entire coast, in order to exclude all other nations from the cinnamon trade: this valuable spice, however, is cultivated only in the south-west coast, in a tract called the Cinnamon coast, in which the principal places are, COLUMBO, the capital of the Dutch settlements in the island, regularly fortified, on a tolerable harbour, formerly very considerable, but much declined; and POINT DE GALLE, on a small indifferent harbour, is fortified, and become the centre of the Dutch trade in the island.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island, to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever since to themselves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trinconomale, the chief sea-port of the island was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "Of this tree (says a well-informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty

tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree.

We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-east, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited; but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern islands they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles feathers to sledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, fabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

A F R I C A.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean,

in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Gurdafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 3500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the southern ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greatest part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives, in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and ceasing to flow become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile which dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomopata, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, so called, because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy grounds. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the south extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at present in the possession of the Dutch; and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is however the misfortune of Africa,

that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep, rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which Nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and by degrees all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following Table.

	Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco, Faslet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	980 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Tolmeta	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
Up. Ethiop.	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans.
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Legessa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans.
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	1 20 bef.	Pagans.
	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Christian.
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.							
	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans.
Low Guinea.	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans.
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans.
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagan.
	Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Ferra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Jaffraria or Tottentot.	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Molt stupid Pag.

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

Islands.	Sq. Mil.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea		Babe. Mandel	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calausia	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Austin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	English
Ascension, ditto			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes- island, Ferdinandopo	} ditto	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verd Islands, ditto		St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto	2,000	Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto		Palma, St. Christophers	Spanish
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa and America.	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under three grand divisions: first, Egypt; secondly the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the east, to the Atlantic Ocean, west; and, lastly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; the last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 250	between { 20 and 32 north latitude. 28 and 36 east longitude.	{ 140,700.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, East; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt	{ GRAND CAIRO, E. lon. 32 N. Lat. 30. Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt	{ Sayd or Thebes Coffiar

AIR.] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months of the year, (from March to November,) the heat is almost insupportable by an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity that no animated body exposed to it can withstand its fatal influence. During the three days, which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter: when it exceeds three days it is insupportable.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country), but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall in Abyssinia and the adjacent part of Africa, in May, June and July. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees,

their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of a jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. When the banks are cut, the water is let in to what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect, which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantations, grapes, figs and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 20,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, these people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called Ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws; and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. It seems to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly: according to M. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount at present to 2,300,000, of which Cairo contains about 250,000.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are here distinguished by the name of Coptis; in their complexions, they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion. Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to consist of Arabs or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

[RELIGION.] To what I have already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to say what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Coptis, which are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

[LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. Arabic or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manu-

scripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, especially those who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning therefore possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet.† It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens, is common in Egypt and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

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† M. Volney, says, that a late mensuration assigns to each face of the Great Pyramid, six hundred feet; and its perpendicular height, four hundred and eighty feet.

*height, 70 feet
(a single stone)*

CITIES, TOWNS, AND } - Even a slight review of these would amount to a large
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls
of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and
many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and
vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red Sea furnished Europe and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole which was built to form a communication with the island of Pharos is 1000 yards in length, and though near 2000 years old, such were its excellent materials as to resist in a great measure the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles, but only half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houses belonging to Christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choicest fruits of the East. The Mahometan inhabitants are here also particularly civil and polite.

Cairo, now Maſr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladine: at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they shew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shewn in Old Cairo, but Captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dapping camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intense heat makes

the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west banks of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cosliar, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a Janizary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the Isthmus, that joins Africa with Asia. The children of Israel are supposed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea: almost every object and village in this country presents some amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in visiting it are great; so that the accounts we can depend upon are but few, nor do they always agree together.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, fenna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. The trade of the English with this country is almost annihilated, as the French are able to undersell them in the principal articles of trade, particularly in light cloths of Languedoc called first and second *Londrins*, which yield a good profit.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] A viceroy is sent to Egypt from the Porte, under the title of the pasha or bashaw of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire. It is generally agreed, that the pasha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or beys, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. It has sometimes happened, that those pashas have employed their arms against their masters; and they are often displaced by the Porte, upon complaint from those petty princes. Those circumstances may account for the reason why Egypt is not over-loaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pococke have given us the best, and indeed a very favourable account of those petty princes, who are called the Schechs or Sheiks of the Bedouins, or wandering Arabs, and are generally too powerful to receive laws from the Turkish government.

Egypt is now divided into 24 provinces, each of which is governed by a Sangiack, or Bey, so that the government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the pasha, and the republican by the mamalukes or sangiacks. The pasha is appointed by the grand signior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divar, composed of these twenty-four sangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of the sangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior's pasha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post, the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] From the nature of this perturbed government it must be difficult, if not impossible to form a judgment of the amount of the revenue of this country; according to the most probable conjecture, it exceeds two millions annually at present.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janizaries, and assafs which are the chief; the former amounting to about six or eight thousand, and the latter to between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not appear, that the pasha ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian beys already mentioned, and who have separate armies of their own; so that, in fact, their dependance upon the Porte is little more than nominal, and amounts at most to feudal services*.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharoahs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyfes II. king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures the pyramids were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second calif of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned: this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. Omar subjected Egypt to the Mahometan power, about the year 640, and the califs of Babylon were sovereigns of the country till anno 870, when the Egyptians set up a governor of their own called the calif of Cairo.

About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noredin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, whose son, the famous Saladine, was so dreadful to those Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, like the janizaries of Constantinople, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever

* According to M. Volney, the principal military strength of the country is now in the hands of the Mamlouks, as scarce a vestige remains of the corps of janizaries, &c. which formerly kept Egypt in subjection.

fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of the people among whom they reside.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali turned Mahometan, and being a man of great abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him, to the grand signior, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople, but being apprized of the design, he seized and put to death the messenger who brought the order, and was soon enabled to put himself at the head of an army. Taking advantage of the distressful and dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient Sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient Sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprizes, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and of introducing order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities, to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with every degree of protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey shewed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire: but he was not finally successful. He was, however, for some time extremely fortunate; he assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheick Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprizes against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashas, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards driven out of the kingdom of Egypt by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Aboudaab, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March 1773, and himself wounded and taken prisoner: he died of his wounds, and was buried at Grand Cairo. Aboudaab afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty, and trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pasha's invitation to dine on board his ship, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

Since the revolt of Ali Bey, the Ottoman power has become more precarious in Egypt than in any other province. The Porte still retains a Pacha there, but this Pacha, confined and watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather the prisoner of the Mamlouks, than the representative of the sultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South, by Tafillet; and on the East, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the East, and Morocco on the South, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the East by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the West by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafillet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided 12 years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and East; by the kingdom of Algiers on the West; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from East to West.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South by the country of the Beriberes; on the West by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the East by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs, but the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

This being premised, I shall consider the Barbary states as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

ATMOSPHERE AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } These states, under the Roman empire were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution, yet they are still fertile, not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quan-

titles of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw, (speaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehensions we were under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tunisine women are excessively handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30.) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are notwithstanding far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisines, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of the Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

DRESS.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

RELIGION.] All foreigners are here allowed the open profession of their religion, but the inhabitants of these states are Mahometans; and many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called, (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors,) have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.

This article is well worth the study of an antiquary, but the subjects of it are difficult of access. The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity; but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants; and but few curious persons except Dr. Shaw have visited the country. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Urica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

[CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez, 30 miles distant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it is said, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege, and that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If so, the Spaniards must have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in the year 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships of different rates, and 346 transports. In the year 1783 and 84, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys, but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The capital, about 30 miles south of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniences attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Salée was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gefula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Zaara, is a desert country, thinly peopled and nearly destitute of both water and provisions.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, nor

only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by those barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; secondly, that no christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects to their deserts and mountains, so that the benefit, resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious. Indeed expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful: of these some account hath already been given.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however of the califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What I have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which commonly does by murder, every foldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing the subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea, sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand Signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties, among the foldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council: and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life; and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an un-

successful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000*l.* a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] By the best accounts we have received, the king of AT SEA AND LAND. } Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of this army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, or indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decadence or fall of the splendor, power, and glory of the states of Barbary; which, when Rome was mistress of the world, formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to

their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as already observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were all called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continued state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since; nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

OF AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.
See the Table and Map.

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known: there is no modern traveller that hath penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Paganism; they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled Negus, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negashba Negacht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriance; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and parti-

cularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal with its dependencies were given up to France. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose.

According to a late sensible writer, Mr. Ramsay, the annual British exports to Africa are estimated at 500,000*l.* including a considerable quantity that is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast, about 50,000*l.* of this is returned in ivory, gold dust, gum, &c. The greatest part of the profits of the slave trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If by establishing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and returning some of our West Indian slaves to their original country, we tried to make up for our past treachery to the natives, and instructed the inhabitants in the culture of tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, and supply us with those articles, our demand for which has been so advantageous to America, great would be our profits. Were Africa civilized, and could we pre-occupy the affections of the natives and introduce gradually our religion, manners, and language among them, we should open a market, that would fully employ our manufacturers and seamen, morally speaking, till the end of time. And while we enriched ourselves, we should contribute to their happiness. For Africa, in its highest probable state of culture, could not possibly interfere with the staple of Britain, so as to hinder an extensive and mutually advantageous trade from being carried on between the countries. The great difference of climate and soil must always distinguish the supplies and wants of each.

The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewise for several others, as sena, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern part of the continent, in the country called Caffaria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well settled, and fortified; where their ships bound for India usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spiritous liquors.

We are informed by a late learned traveller, that the Hottentots live much in the same manner as the ancient Gauls, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries; residing in different hords or tribes, on the banks of rivers, and near the forests; where they form so many distinct villages and independent republics. By means of the rivers, the country about them is fertile in the production of those roots and wild fruits on which the Hottentots in a great measure subsist; and the forests yield

them the like advantages, though these only resemble our shrubberies, their trees being seldom more than six or seven feet high. The Hottentot villages are all circular; the cabins of which they are composed being covered with skins, and so very low, that a man must either stoop very much, or crawl on his knees, to get into them. They serve, indeed, chiefly to contain provisions, and their implements of husbandry; the owner himself never occupying them unless when it rains: at other times, he passes his leisure hours in sleeping at the door of his hut; where he lies on his belly, and exposes his back to the sun and the weather; waking now and then to amuse himself with smoking a certain strong-scented herb, which hath much the same effect as our tobacco.

The employment of the Hottentots is purely pastoral; their principal and almost only occupation being the care of their herds of sheep and kine. Of these each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common there; but there are elephants, the rhinoceros, leopards, tygers, and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed. United among themselves by the bonds of fraternal concord, the inhabitants of the same village live in constant peace. But they take cruel vengeance on the neighbouring tribes, on the first insult that is offered them. The subject of their mutual complaints is generally the stealing of a sheep or cow, and sometimes only a suspicion of it; the consequences, however, are usually very terrible, when they determine on revenge; as they take all possible means, after having made this determination, to make the aggressors suppose the injury forgotten; but no sooner do they find their dissimulation hath taken effect, in the security of the enemy, than they fall suddenly upon them with poisoned weapons, sparing neither age nor sex, but rooting out at once the whole community: such is the method of going to war in this country.

The care of household affairs among the Hottentots belongs to the department of the females. The men, indeed, are the butchers, and prepare the meat for dressing; but the care of providing the vegetables concerns only the women. Thus the mother of a family sets out in a morning, attended by such of her children as are able to follow her, and carrying the rest in her arms or on her back. In this manner she searches the woods and river sides, for roots, pulse, or fruit; of which having gotten a sufficient quantity, she returns, lights a fire on a large stone before the cabin, and when the victuals are dressed, wakes her husband, who sits down to his meal with the rest of the family. The women are clothed with sheepskins, as well as the men; wearing the wool outwards in summer, and inwards during the winter. They wear one skin over their shoulders, the ends of it crossing each other before, and leaving their neck bare; another skin is fastened round their middle, and reaches down to their knees. Those of them who are ambitious to please, adorn themselves with necklaces of shells; for even in this country the

sex have their charms, which they endeavour to heighten by such arts as are peculiar to themselves, and would meet with little success elsewhere. To this end they grease their faces, necks, and all the naked parts of their bodies with mutton suet, in order to make them shine. They braid also or plait their hair, to give themselves an additional elegance. An Hottentot lady thus bedizened, hath exhausted all the arts of her toilet; and however unfavourable nature may have been to her with regard to shape and stature, her pride is wonderfully flattered, while the splendor of her appearance gives her the highest degree of satisfaction.

HISTORY.] The history of this continent is little known. We learn from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago in which they are at present; that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by supposing, that nature has placed some insuperable barrier between the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe; or that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progress in civility or science. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West India islands might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa for slaves hath exceeded 100,000, numbers of whom are driven down like sheep, perhaps 1000 miles from the sea coast, who are generally inhabitants of villages, that have been surrounded in the night by armed force, and carried off to be sold to our traders.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the Negroes in our settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, which is upwards of 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes supported by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "While on the coast, I saw instances of this sort so truly cruel, as made my very bosom bleed. This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say they are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of the commerce, as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of these nations."

It is high time for the legislature to enforce and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of our constitution. Let the Negroes already in our islands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population: there are sufficient numbers to cultivate the sugar plantations without any future supply, and which would be more profitable to the planters, as well as the kingdom in general.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues east of Cape Gardesoi, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or Sheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated in east lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren, sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are, Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angezeia, and Comora; situated between 41 and 46 east lon. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which claims sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others; is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east lon. and between 10 and 26 south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to south; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel, or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally fall, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes, some Mahometans, some pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured that they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here; though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people disliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder; but the French have given it the name of *THE ISLE OF FRANCE*. It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in possession of the French.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a hideous roaring noise, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort

in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor; and here their East-India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the Old World, on the east; and America, or the New World, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-4, south lat. 16, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high, and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is destroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, silks, muslins, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: and the English East-India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East-India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East-India ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.



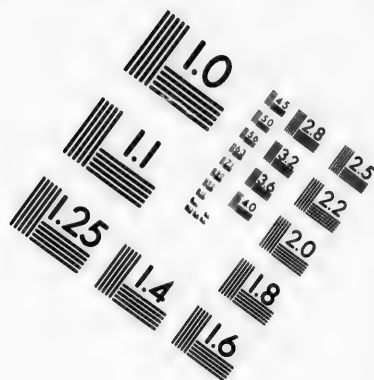
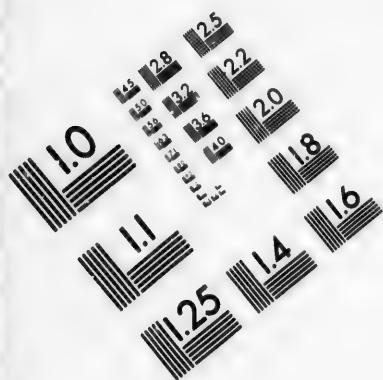
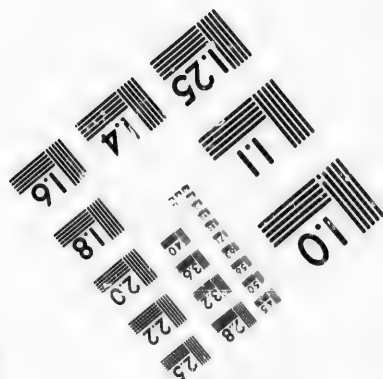
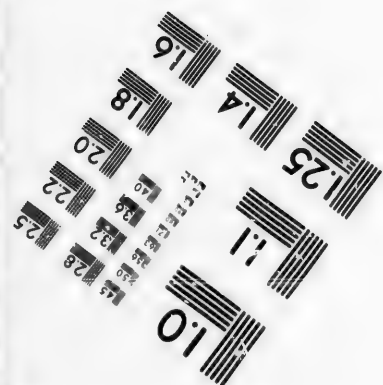
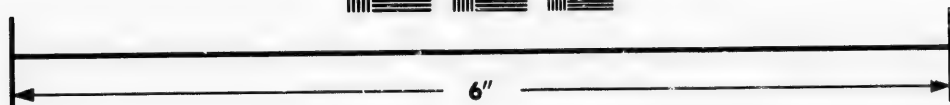
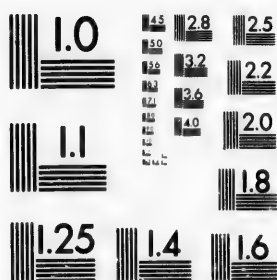


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ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 deg. 40 min. south lat. 600 miles north west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous, barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a safe, convenient harbour, where the East-India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above an hundred pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6-1 west lon. and 1-30 south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserted it, this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **St. THOMAS, PRINCES ISLAND, ANNABOA, and FERNANDOPO,** are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and belong still to them; they furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by. And to the honour of the Portuguese government, and disgrace of our West-India legislatures, there are 15,000 Negro Christians in St. Thomas', instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 degrees west lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them, being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. **St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio,** are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference, yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; but the plant of most consequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, hogs, and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. **Baya, or Praya** (famous for an action between an English and French Squadron the last war), situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward bound to Guinea or the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **Mayo, or May,** immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring-tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to

Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GORÉE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was re-taken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms were every where triumphant, and it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the last war but again restored at the peace of 1783.

CANARIES.] The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees west lon. and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langanote. These islands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at ten thousand hogsheads annually. The Canaries abound with those beautiful little birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile, as to produce two harvests in the year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters

of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anfon's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Saltee in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchial, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519: but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragons blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the West where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, malmsey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West-Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south-west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 degrees west lon. and between 37 and 40 north latitude, 900 miles west

of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who in a voyage to Lisbon, was by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, to whom they still belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; also in cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south-east winds. It is generally visited by their homeward bound fleets from Brasil, Africa, and the East-Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as the bishop.

A M E R I C A.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of Art, owes in many respects more to that of Nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our Readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world; but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the

court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another: they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he at length succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus set sail in the year 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested*. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass; then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of Nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness and address of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. It was on the morning of the 12th of October, that Columbus descried an island, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the Pinta instantly began the Te Deum, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy, and transports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to Heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, with feelings of self-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence. After this the boats were all manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike music, and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, and whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects which presented themselves to their view. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the new world which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His

* Dr. Robertson observes, that the armament of Columbus was not suitable either to the dignity of the nation by which it was equipped, or to the importance of the service for which it was destined. It consisted of three vessels. The largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria, out of respect for the Blessed Virgin, whom he honoured with singular devotion. Of the second, called the Pinta, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the Nigna, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These two were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats. This squadron, if it merits that name, was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. Though the expence of the undertaking was one of the circumstances which chiefly alarmed the court of Spain, and retarded so long the negotiation with Columbus, the sum employed in fitting out this squadron did not exceed four thousand pounds.

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men followed, and kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see; and they took solemn possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon. The natives of the country were at first shy through fear, but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and trafficked with them. It was one of the Bahama islands on which Columbus first landed; but he soon discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by humane and hospitable people, and what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in that great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. Thus were the West-Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, were prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine, whether the genius of this great man in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserve our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for the establishing of this colony with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounded in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of

reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and lands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoque, the admiral was surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the sea and the rapid current of that immense river. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where, in a friendly manner, he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brasil; which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which now compose the British empire in North-America; and Americus Vesputius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America; and being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated

like a criminal, and carried over to Europe in irons. When he arrived in Spain, the court began to be ashamed of their ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders were instantly issued to set him at liberty. He vindicated his conduct, in the presence of the king and queen, in the most satisfactory manner, and gave ample evidence of the malevolence of his enemies. Ferdinand and Isabella expressed their sorrow for what had happened, disavowed their knowledge of it, and joined in promising him protection and future favour. Columbus, however, retained a deep sense of the indignity with which he had been treated. The fetters that he had been loaded with were constantly hung up in his chamber, and he gave orders that when he died they should be buried in his grave. But notwithstanding the ill treatment which he had received, he undertook another voyage in order to make farther discoveries. He underwent in the course of it great fatigues; and returning to Spain, ended his life at Valladolid on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He had the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplished the execution of his plan. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were placed; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de la Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer in the thick of the forests, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-shots, or surprised and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez is dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposes to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations. Never history, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico, it is said, had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry: it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious or useful.

But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover till it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlalca, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined armies with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progress discovers a volcano of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he should supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded 30 vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not resist a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is set apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him; though at the same time he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of the European address. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the indignation of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine, by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did

the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while: but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which in a few days occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which was distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish, rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover in what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuse to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were beside of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that with this inconsiderable force Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circum-

stances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger he still subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the distressed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great God, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country; and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huefcar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huefcar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description was supposed to correspond to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians; but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themselves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embar-

raffment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external shew of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom is paid in without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and, considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had above 2000*l.* English money. With such fortunes, it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand; sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his family, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting-officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and policy, which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huascar had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huascar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huascar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another; their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the

foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoned Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco; and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned, to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared; and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed almost of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced

another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and failed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct railed a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother-country. By his prudent management the mines of La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Di Castro had not been sufficiently skilled, in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, a council was sent over to control Di Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The parties but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malecontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily; and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched with unlimited powers Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself was offered a full indemnity, provided he should return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard rather than submit to an officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be handled under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, governments, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions; noticing, at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants.

Of the Original Inhabitants of A M E R I C A.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted with corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessities of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the New World immersed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a state of honest independence and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art: even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessities of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence,

who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations of Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits, which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the deligas of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the same reason extremely small, when compared with civilised societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as Nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are pretty much equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans; and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they insist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes, which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant; because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support, and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquir-

ing respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and which may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed; and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold, figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner; but if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends are deemed enemies, and they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle (for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination), give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him; for every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
“ But with one love, with one resentment flows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And indeed no people carry their friendships, or their resentment, so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in

human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force, the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons; and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined to enable them to entertain just sentiments of humanity, or universal benevolence. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars, seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They can even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy to lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of

the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the furious savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If these who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus

mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it, after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or dagger. The body is then put into a kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for an Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid,* exclaims the savage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop.*

These circumstances of cruelty, which so exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, because they serve to shew, in the strongest light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the passions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of polished society, when let loose

from the government of reason, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Christianity; a religion that teaches compassion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practised in other institutions; and it will make us more sensible, than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of some of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewise the sting of our natural vices, and softened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the history of mankind, as I have already observed, forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affections towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it: among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? or is his house burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortunes, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others), are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a

thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people toward their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the

great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inha-

bitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle, but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A general Description of A M E R I C A.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD; extends from the 80th degree North, to the 56th degree South latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree West longitude from London; stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greatest breadth 3690. It sees both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the west it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the North, the other on the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of Isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the Isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we begin to treat of separate countries in their order, we must, according to just method, take notice of those mountains and rivers, which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world*. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Isthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow†. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American states, separating them from Canada and

* Dr. Robertson observes, that "the mountains of America are much superior in height to those in the other divisions of the globe. Even the plain of Quito, which may be considered as the base of the Andes, is elevated farther above the sea than the top of the Pyrenees. This stupendous ridge of the Andes, no less remarkable for extent than elevation, rises in different places more than one third above the Pike of Teneriffe, the highest land in the ancient hemisphere. The Andes may literally be said to hide their heads in the clouds; the storms often roll, and the thunder bursts below their summits, which, though exposed to the rays of the sun in the centre of the torrid zone, are covered with everlasting snows."

† Chimborazo the highest of the Andes is 20,600 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high.

Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alligany mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misissipi, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the immense recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited, and by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate river. The first rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from West to East, and falls into the ocean between Brasil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoque is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of Nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, annatto, logwood, brazil, luffic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuit's

→ It is 200 yards broad at the Bayou de la
N. Orleans. width is equal to foot.

bark, mechoacan, saffrafas, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergrise, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatus, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the straits of Magellan in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America, from the first discovery of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the conclusion of the late war, laid a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name on the south: regions which all Europe could not people in the course of many ages: but no territory, however extensive, no empire, however boundless, could gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; hence, under the most solemn treaties, they continued in a state of hostility, making gradual advances upon the back of our settlements, and rendering their acquisitions more secure and permanent by a chain of forts, well supplied with all the implements of war. At the same time they laboured incessantly to gain the friendship of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and whom they not only trained to the use of arms, but infused into these savages the most unfavourable notions of the English, and the strength of their nation. The British colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a slip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The British empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total dissolution. The colonies, in their distress, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were sent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a set of heroes, the Scipios of that age. A long war succeeded, which ended gloriously for Great Britain; for after oceans of blood were spilt, and every inch of ground was bravely disputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its dependencies, but

*France P. claims Canada as of the
the British*

obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana, lying on the east side of the Mississippi.

Thus at an immense expence, and with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and western sides; for to the northward, it should seem that we might have extended our claims quite to the pole itself, nor did any nation seem inclined to dispute the property of this northernmost country with us. If we had chosen to take our stand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the south, we had a territory extending in that aspect, from the Pole to Cape Florida in the gulf of Mexico, North lat. 25, and consequently near 4000 miles long, in a direct line; which was the more valuable, as it included the most temperate climates of this new world, and such as are best suited to the British constitutions. But to the westward, our boundaries reached to nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. But our flattering prospects respecting the American possessions, have been annihilated by the unhappy contest between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight years continuance with a great expence of treasure and blood, ended in their dismemberment from the British empire, and in the establishment of a new Republic, styled "The thirteen United States of America." This vast country is all the way washed by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and on the south by the gulf of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Laurence, the Mississippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and western boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

In describing the situation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compose that great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers, as well as those of Salmon and other English geographers, if men deserve that name, who have wandered so widely from the truth, and who seem either unacquainted with the subject, or have been at no pains to consult the latest and most authentic materials. This we thought necessary to premise, that the reader may be prepared for the following Table, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto published, being composed from the latest treaties, and partitions, and the best maps and drawings; the surest guides in giving the geography of these important provinces.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which, in any other hands would be of no consequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. France is said to have lately ceded the small island of St. Bartholomew to Sweden. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north.

The Grand Divisions of NORTH-AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles	Chief Towns.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
New Britain	850	750	318,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland New Brunfw.	350	250	57,000	Halifax Shelburne		Ditto
New England	550	200	87,000	Bolton	276° W.	Unite. States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsbur.		Ditto
North Carolina	700	380	110,000	Edenton		Ditto
South Carolina				Charles-town		Ditto
Georgia				Savannah		Ditto
East Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Augustine		Spain
West Florida				Pensacola		Ditto
Louisiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	108° S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee St. Juan	142° S. W.	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	190° S. W.	Ditto

Grand Divisions of SOUTH-AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	165° S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	552° S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayenne	384° S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2500	700	940,000	St. Sebastian	600° S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen Ayres	604° S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	660° S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellana, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

The principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to the EUROPEANS are,

ISLANDS.	Length Bread.		Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
St. John's	60	30	500	Charlot. Town	Ditto
The Bermuda isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
The Bahama ditto	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto
Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
St. Christopher's	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.			Charles-town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
Anequilla	30	10	60		Ditto
Dominica	28	13	150		Ditto
St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
Granada	30	15	150	St. Georges	Ditto
Cuba	700	90	38,300	Havannah	Spain
Hispaniola	450	150	36,300	St. Domingo	Do. & France
Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Port Rico	Spain
Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto
Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France
Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse terre	Ditto
St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto
Tobago	32	9	80		Ditto
St. Bartholomew Deffsada, and Marigalanta	all of them in- considerable.				Ditto* Ditto Ditto
St. Eustatia	29 circum.			The Bay	Dutch
Curassou	30	10	348		Ditto
St. Thomas	15 circum.				Denmark
St. Croix	30	10		Basse End	Ditto

* Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

In the Gulf of St. Lawrence, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.

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N E W B R I T A I N .

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen seas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the East; by the Bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the South, and by unknown lands on the West. Its length is computed at 850 miles, and 750 broad.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, } AND CAPES. These are numerous in this country and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered; the principal bay is that of Hudson, which includes several others; the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davies, and Belleisle; and the chief rivers are the Moose, Severn, Rupert, Nelson, and Black River.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kinds, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morfes, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phenomenon. But what is yet more surprising, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one to bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage, which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia.

They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard, or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals, as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The conjar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are despicable in comparison of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the southern parts of America, are different from those in the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the colds of the North, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in Southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance: for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country shew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very savage. They are of a tawny complexion, and lead a vagrant life, moving from place to place, spending their time in hunting and fishing. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already described, from whom they are probably descended. These on the coast appear to be peaceable and inoffensive, and are dexterous in managing their kiacks or boats. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth and viewed that and the more northern coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining

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the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1746 captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries in 1761. But besides these voyages, which satisfy us that we must not look for a passage on this side of the latitude 67 degrees North, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording, what may be called demonstration, how much farther North, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-mine river. The Company, being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who having been brought up for the navy and served in it the war before last, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river; which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he should pass.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude $58^{\circ} 47\frac{1}{2}'$ North, and longitude $94^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{2}'$ West from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of June reached the Copper-mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the sea, incumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about 12 or 14 feet. This rise, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it had not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure of the place it emptied itself into being the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broken up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the island and shoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the most extensive view of the sea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme parts of it bore N. W. b. W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea, in every respect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, walked from *Congecathawachaga*, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within $20'$ at the utmost. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper-mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-mine river to Churchill lasted till June 30th 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable reward from his masters. He has been several years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, where he was taken prisoner by the French in 1782.

The consequences resulting from this extensive discovery are obvious. We now see that the continent of North America stretches from Hudson's Bay, so far to the North-West, that Mr. Hearne travelled near 1300 miles before he arrived at the sea; and that the whole of his track to the northward of 61° of North latitude, lay near 600 miles due West of the western coast of Hudson's Bay, at the same time that his Indian guides were well aware of a vast tract of land, stretching farther, in the same direction. Futile therefore are the arguments of those, who, about 40 years ago, stickled so much for a North-west passage through Hudson's Bay.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the private men, who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French in May 1782, took and destroyed these forts, and the settlements, &c. said to amount to near 500,000*l*. They export commodities to the value of 16,000*l*. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340*l*. which yield to the revenue 3,734*l*. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent, of which we have the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship too happens to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances tend to prove incontestibly the immense benefit that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade so advantageous now as it was before we got possession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement here, though the annual produce of the fishery, amounting to upwards of 49,000*l*. and the natural advantages of the country, should encourage us to set about this design.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600	} between	{ 61 and 81 west longitude.	100,000.
Breadth 200		{ 45 and 52 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the East: and, to the West, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they had been able to cultivate, and which bore the

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face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Laurence, and the numerous small rivers falling into that stream. This being reduced by the British arms in the war of 1756 was formed into a British colony, called the Province of Quebec.

In the year 1774, an act was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that all the territories, islands, and countries in North America, belonging to the crown of Great Britain, bounded on the south by a line from the bay Chaleurs, along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Laurence from those which fall into the sea, to a point in forty-five degrees of northern latitude, on the eastern bank of the river Connecticut, keeping the same latitude directly west, through the lake Champlain, until, in the same latitude, it meets the River St. Laurence; from thence up the eastern bank of the same river to the lake Ontario; thence through the lake Ontario, and the river commonly called Niagara; and thence along by the eastern and south-eastern bank of lake Erie, following the said bank, until the same shall be intersected by the northern boundary, granted by the charter of the province of Pennsylvania, in case the same shall be so intersected; and from thence along the said northern and western boundaries of the said province, until the said western boundary strike the Ohio; but in case the said bank of the said lake shall not be found to be so intersected, then following the said bank until it shall arrive at that point of it which shall be the nearest to the north-western angle of the province of Pennsylvania; and thence, by a right line, to the north-western angle of the said province; and thence along the western boundary of that province, until it strike the river Ohio; and along the bank of that river, westward, to the banks of the Mississippi, and northward to the southern boundary of the territory granted to the Hudson's Bay Company; and also all such territories, islands, and countries, which had, since the 10th of February 1763, been made part of the government of Newfoundland, be annexed to; and made part of, the province of Quebec: but by the peace of 1783, the boundaries were greatly contracted. It is now bounded by New Britain and Hudson's Bay on the North and East; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York on the South, and by unknown lands on the West.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like most of those American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot and exceedingly pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the River St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these colonies, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar, and

oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple, three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivières, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the last war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great Britain) have settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity it is not improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water, which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like the lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great an height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of 15 miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance,

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appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and sometimes the Indians through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits, by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem or prince. It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besinear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or six pounds), which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-sickness, are ascribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey

and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no grafs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffalo, a kind of wild ox, has much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides are soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country: their flesh is white and good to eat; and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common; and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively, except when asleep, which is often the case; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among 20 persons. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are said to support themselves during the winter, when the snow lies from four to six feet deep, by sucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after, than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found

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here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of oriole, very shewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-hafer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake only deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good; and being also of a medicinal quality, it is used by the American apothecaries in particular cases.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencorner, the goberque, the sea-plaife, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourasou, surgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelt, conger-eels, mackerel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracke. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence are said to yield a hoghead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket proof. The lencorner is a kind of cuttle-fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourasou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger: its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the

surface of the water: the fowls, which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt water fish, taken on the coasts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vastly populous; but we cannot precisely determine the number of French and English settled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants are computed at about 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richlieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate; that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood in the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could

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administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when taken by the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southern-most side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it hath suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their rights and privileges.

It was enacted by an act of parliament in the year 1774, that it should be lawful for his majesty, his heirs, and successors, by warrant under his or their signet or sign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall be pleased to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of the members of the said council, in like manner to constitute and appoint others to succeed them. And this council, so appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are vested with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the consent of the governor, or in his absence of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not empowered to lay taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or such local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controversy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act not only to profess the Catholic religion, but the Catholic clergy are invested with a right to claim and obtain their accustomed dues from those of the same religion.

This act occasioned a great alarm both in England and America, and appears to have contributed much towards spreading a spirit of disaffection to the British government in the colonies. The city of London petitioned against the bill before it received the royal assent; declaring, that they apprehended it to be entirely subversive of the great fundamental principles of the British constitution, as well as of the authority of various solemn acts of the legislature. And in one of the petitions of the American congress to the king, they complained, that by the Quebec act, "the limits of that province were extended, the English laws abolished, and the French laws restored, whereby great numbers of British freemen were subjected to the latter; and that an absolute government, and the Roman catholic religion, were also established by that act, throughout those vast regions that border on the westerly and northerly boundaries of the free Protestant English settlements."

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our then settlements, we secured them from the danger of being molested or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper spirit and industry, to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While the important conquest of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the sole possession of the fur and peltry trade, the use and importance of which are well known to the manufacturers of Great Britain, and, it was thought, would have enabled us to extend the scale of a general commerce. But our expectations of this kind have been much lowered by the fatal contest with the colonies.

The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted to preserve order, in such a concourse, and with so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages!

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country is computed to employ about 60 ships, and 1000 seamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire and wheat, amount to 105,500*l*. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade; which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensibly necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other settlements in the East and West Indies.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impossible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes; I mean the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons arrive there annually. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter season, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with safety from the Indians. For it may be here observed, that these savage people often commence hostilities against us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the most horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at last their barbarities have roused the strength of our people, they are not ashamed to beg a peace: they know we always grant it readily; they promise it shall endure as long as the sun and moon; and then all is quiet till some incident, too often co-operating with ill usage received from our traders, gives them a fresh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

N O V A S C O T I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350	} between	{ 43 and 49 north latitude.	} 57,000.
Breadth 250		{ 60 and 67 east longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the River St. Laurence on the North; by the gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic ocean, East; by the same ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, West. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*.

The province and government, now styled **NEW BRUNSWICK** is bounded on the westward of the mouth of the river St. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the said boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eastward by the said bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix, aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquat River, by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due east line across the Isthmus into the Bay Verte; to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Rigouche and Nipisiguit, run from west to east, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which runs from north to south, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS BAYS, AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are, Chenigto and Green Bay upon the Isthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east; the bay of the islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rysignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas on the south side of Fundy Bay, and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port and Epis, on the east, Cape Foger, and Cape Canceau, on the south-east. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south. Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the south-west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the Temperate Zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, is almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress. In most parts the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces, of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and the bay of Fundy. A great

quantity of land hath been cleared which abounds in timber, and ship-loads of excellent masts and spars have been shipped for England.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utrecht, and their design in acquiring it, does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery, and to see that the articles of the peace, relating thereto, are duly observed by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are stationed in it, to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whose resentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable against the English. The number of inhabitants is said to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries, and it being the residence of the governor and the garrison already mentioned.

The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and though but a small wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. This place is also protected by a fort and garrison. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the west side. Since the conclusion of the American war the emigration of loyalists to this province, from the United States hath been very great. By them new towns have been raised, but particularly at Port Roseway, where is now a city named *Shelburne*, which extends two miles on the water side, and one mile back, with wide streets crossing each other at right angles. It is said to have above 9000 inhabitants, exclusive of what is styled the *Black Town* (containing 1200 free blacks, who served on the royal side during the war), which stands about a mile from Shelburne, and separated from it by a small fresh water river. The harbour here is deep, capacious, and secure, and the tide hath a great rise and fall. Such of the loyalists as apply for lands have in proportion to the property they possessed before the troubles in America commenced, allowing for such as have large families to provide for. And it is said that the new appointed governor of New Brunswick has it in his instructions to "grant, without fee or reward, to

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such reduced officers as served in provincial corps during the late war in North America, and shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands, subject at the expiration of ten years to the same quit rents as other lands are subject in the province of Nova Scotia, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement. To every person having the rank of a field officer, three thousand acres; to every captain two thousand acres; and to every subaltern one thousand acres." The reduced officers of the navy are entitled to land in the same proportion.

The exports from Great Britain to this country consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500*l*. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000*l*. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the islands adjoining is estimated at 50,000. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them at present in a declining State, having great numbers of the houses built in the New Towns uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

favorable than our most

part. The balance in the Treasury, exclusive of the monies received

1830
On November, 1830, with Great Britain, was about eight hundred and sixty-one thousand nine hundred and twenty-two dollars and eighty-three cents. The receipts into the Treasury from the 1st of January to the 30th of September last, so far as they have been ascertained to form the basis of an estimate, amount to eighteen millions six hundred and thirty-three thousand nine hundred and eighty dollars and twenty-seven cents, which, with the receipts of the present quarter, estimated at five millions four hundred and sixty-one thousand two hundred and eighty-three dollars and forty cents, form an aggregate of receipts during the year of twenty-four millions and ninety-four thousand eight hundred and sixty-three dollars and sixty-seven cents. The expenditure of the year may probably amount to twenty-five millions six hundred and thirty-seven thousand five hundred and eleven dollars and sixty-three cents; and leave in the Treasury on the 1st of January next the sum of five millions one hundred and twenty-five thousand six hundred and thirty-eight dollars and thirteen cents.

The receipts of the present year have amounted to near two millions more than was anticipated at the commencement of the last Session of Congress.

The amount of duties secured on importations, from the 1st of January to the 30th of September, was about twenty-two millions nine hundred and ninety-seven thousand, and that of the estimated accruing revenue is five millions, forming an aggregate for the year of near twenty-eight millions. This is one million more than the estimate made last December for the accruing revenue of the present year, which, with the allowances for drawbacks and contingent deficiencies, was expected to produce an actual revenue of twenty-two millions three hundred thousand dollars. Had these only been realised, the expenditures of the year would have been also proportionally reduced; for of these twenty-four millions received, upwards of nine millions have been applied to the extinction of public debt, leaving an interest of six per cent. a year, and of course adding the burden of interest annually payable in future, by the amount of more than half a million. The payments on account of interest during the current year exceed three millions of dollars, presenting an aggregate of more than five millions annulled during the year by the discharge of the public debt, the whole of which remains due on the 1st of January next will amount only to fifty-eight millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand one hundred and thirty-five dollars and seventy-eight cents.

That the revenue of the one now expiring, there are indications that received in the one now expiring, there are indications which can scarcely prove deceptive. In our country, an uniform experience of forty years has shown that whatever the tariff of duties upon articles imported from abroad has been, the amount of importations has always borne at average value nearly approaching to that of the exports, though occasionally differing in the balance, sometimes being more and sometimes less. It is indeed a general law of mercantile commerce, that the real value of

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and the colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the Union, we have already given an account, in our view of the history of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, the solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for separating from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the united colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, and do all other acts and things, which independent States might do, and of right ought to do, in full power to publish acts of confederation, and perpetual union, and in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America." The colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for obliging themselves to assist each other against all enemies, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks, or any one of them, on account of religion, or any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies retained the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and no power was included in the articles of confederation. The management of the general interests of the United States should be annually appointed in such manner as the States should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday of the year, and to send others in their stead, for the purpose of being represented in congress by less than two, nor by more than one person is capable of being a delegate for more than

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DUBLIN CORN-EXCHANGE, (THIS DAY.)—Grain at Market today were small. Here at the reduction of Tuesday; Oats, except lower. In Flour or Oatmeal there is no change. Wheat, Red, 34s to 40s; Ditto, White, 40s to 45s; Barley, 21s to 23s.

LONDON CORN-EXCHANGE, DECEMBER 31.—Wheat, Barley, and Oats, Monday's prices. Wheat, Barley, and Oats, Monday's prices. Wheat, Barley, and Oats, Monday's prices.

LIVERPOOL CORN-EXCHANGE, DEC. 30.—Wheat, white, per 70lbs, 11s to 12s; ditto, 11s 3d; Irish, white, 10s 9d to 11s; ditto, red, 10s 3d; English, 45lbs 4s to 4s 5d; Irish, 3s 6d; Barley, English, Malt, 42s to 45s; Irish 42s 9d to 45s.

BIRTHS.
On the 27th ult., at Lissadue, County Down, Mrs. Stuart, of a son.
On the 29th ult., at Tuam, the Lady of the Potter, of a son.

MARRIED.
At Blessington Church, Ambrose Upton (son of the late Major Richard Hornidge, of Tuam Wicklow).

At Donadea Church, on the 29th ult., J. Esq., only son of Michael Aylmer, of Courtown, Kildare, Esq., to Margaret, daughter of the late Aylmer, of Donadea Castle, Bart.

On the 30th ult., in St. James's Church, by the Rev. F.T.C.D., Lieutenant Horn of the 1st Life Guards, youngest daughter of the Rev. the Chaplain of the Royal Hospital, Kilmainham.

DIED.
Of fever, on the 30th ult., in the prime of life, wife of George Howell, of Molesworth, Esq.

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such reduced officers as served in provincial corps during the late war in North America, and shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands, subject at the expiration of ten years to the same quit rents as other lands are subject in the province of Nova Scotia, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement. To every person having the rank of a field officer, three thousand acres; to every captain two thousand acres; and to every subaltern one thousand acres." The reduced officers of the navy are entitled to land in the same proportion.

The exports from Great Britain to this country consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500*l*. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000*l*. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the islands adjoining is estimated at 50,000. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them at present in a declining State, having great numbers of the houses built in the New Towns uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the "United States of America," we have already given an account, in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority, of the inhabitants of the united colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. They also published acts of confederation, and perpetual union, between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled against all, or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation.

But for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was determined, that delegates should be annually appointed in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday of November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead, for the remainder of the year. No state is to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person is capable of being a delegate for more than

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three years, in any term of six years; nor is any person being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, shall receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state is to have one vote. Every state is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions which are submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation are to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every state*.

* At the commencement of the late revolution in America, one of the first objects of the people, was, a form of government, which, by giving efficiency to the warlike operations of the times, and uniting in one legislative and executive body the leading characters of the different provinces, promised to inspire confidence and unanimity throughout the continent. A congress, composed of representatives from the thirteen United States, was, we have seen, the suggestion of the time; and the event has proved, that no body of men could have acted with more steadiness, virtue, and success, against such an accumulation of power, temptation, and distress, as they had to contend with for several years. During the tumult of war, the acquiescence of the subject, gave vigour and effect to the hand and the head which directed the machine of government; but the factions which peace generally produces in free states, (and which probably contribute to preserve their existence) pointed out the incompetency and delibery of the powers of congress, by a general disregard of its *recommendations*.—America then appeared as a cumbrous disordered body, without a head to direct its motions.—Various evils naturally flowed from such a state: public credit and private confidence universally depreciated, and distress and distraction pervaded the whole continent, whilst the national consequence was without respect in foreign courts. Congress saw and lamented these infirmities in the state, but had not the power to remove them; till at length the dormant virtue of the people was roused, and a convention was appointed, composed of most of those characters whose courage and wisdom had safely steered the state vessel in more boisterous times. In this assembly (whereof the immortal Washington was president) a new form of federal government was determined on, which, as it promises in its execution to produce the most salutary effects on that country, and to have considerable influence on her relative connection with foreign nations, we think it our duty to insert in full, (from an authentic copy,) in THIS Edition of the Geography.

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Sec. 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Sec. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second year, by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

No person shall be a representative, who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sec. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as nearly as they may be, into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year; so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

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It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19th, 1782; and on the 30th of November, 1782,

SECT. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECT. 5. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each House may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither House, during the sessions of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECT. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECT. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journals of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevents its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and, before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECT. 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States:

No. XXVIII.

but all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States.

To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes.

To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

To coin money, regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

To establish post offices and post roads.

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court.

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water.

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

To provide and maintain a navy.

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

To provide for calling forth the militia, to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by Congress.

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State, in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings. And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution, in the Government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof.

SECT. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress, prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder, or ex post facto law, shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census, or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or Foreign State.

SECT. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money;

provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the thirteen colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty.

emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin, a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and controul of Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a Foreign Power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger, as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECT. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years; and together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each Senate shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed, to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose a President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of a President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased or diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECT. 2. The President shall be Commander in Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they may think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECT. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECT. 4. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanours.

ARTICLE III.

SECT. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECT. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority: to all cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers, and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECT. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of trea-

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Sweden acknowledged them as such February, 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th February; Spain, in March, and Russia, in July 1783.

According to the report of the committee appointed for that purpose, *the Foreign Debt* of the United States incurred by the late war in obtaining their independence, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars, and the *Domestic Debt* to 34,115,290, total, at 4s. 6d. each, equal to 9,450,084l. sterling, the interest of which at 6 per cent. is 567,005l. But the cost of the war to Great Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914l. and the additional annual burthen by it 4,557,575l. since January 1775. As to the loss of men during the unhappy war, the States of America, according to authentic estimates, lost by the sword and in prison near 80,000 men; and by the British returns at New York, the number of soldiers killed in the service, amounted to 43,633.

N E W E N G L A N D.

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BOUNDARIES. BOUNDED on the North-East by Nova Scotia; on the West by Canada; on the south, by New York; and on the East by the Atlantic.

son unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainer of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECT. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECT. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

SECT. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into the Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislature of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECT. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; or on the application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part thereof, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the Convention of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The northern division, or government	{ New Hampshire —	{ } Portsmouth.
The middle division —	{ Massachusetts Colony	{ } BOSTON, N. Lat. 42° 25' W. Lon. 70° 37.
The south division —	Rhode Island, &c.	Newport.
The west division —	{ Connecticut —	{ } New London. Hertford.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kinebeque; and 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations; Monument-Bay; West-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Boston-harbour; Piscataway; and Casco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun than the mother-country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh water lakes lying on the north-west of New England, which being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds, which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and sets at 34 minutes after seven in the evening; and on the shortest day, it rises at 35 minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the shortest about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round Massachusetts bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They likewise malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of melasses. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cyder in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber; as, oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and

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other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ship-building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and used to furnish the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minks, martens, racoons, sabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together: and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattlesnakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take in great numbers; and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas; but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one; but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in winter, which they dry in the frost.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND } There is not one of the colonies which can be
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } compared in the abundance of people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother-country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach above 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates; but the greatest part of the people is composed of a substantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependence upon any but providence, and their own industry.**

These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy to the exercise of arms; and before the contest with the mother-country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable. The population of the four provinces, of which New England is comprized, was proportioned by Douglas, some years past, as follows:

		But in 1783.
Massachusetts's bay	200,000	350,300
Connecticut	100,000	206,000
Rhode Island	30,000	50,400
New Hampshire	24,000	82,200

Thus the number since his time is so greatly increased, that the four provinces now contain nearly 700,000 souls, including a small number of negroes and Indians.

Connecticut is said, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of British America, as well in the abundance of people, as cultivation of soil. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robust, and stout, and tall. The greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept straight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; so that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handsome, and genteel, and modest and reserved in their manners and behaviour. They cannot converse much about whist, quadrille, or operas; but it is said that they will talk freely upon subjects of history, geography, and other literary subjects. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hospitable to strangers.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being in a flourishing condition; in several places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve persons. In the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious assemblies; of which 36 only observed the forms of the church of England. Every particular society among them is independent of all other ecclesiastical jurisdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their punishments or censures. The ministers of Boston depend entirely on the generosity of their hearers for support; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine service is celebrated. It is not long since they suffered any member of the church of England to have a share in the magistracy, or to be elected a member of the commons, or House of Representatives. Their laws against quakers were formerly very severe, that sect giving the first settlers and government there great uneasiness and disturbance. To bring one in was a forfeiture of 100l. to conceal one 40s. an hour; to go to a quaker's meeting, 10s. to preach there 5s. If a quaker was not an inhabitant, he was subject to banishment, and if he returned, death; but these, and some other severe ecclesiastical laws are now repealed, in consequence of the diffusion of more humane and equitable principles. Calvinism from the principles of the first settlers, hath been very prevalent in New England, many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but their bigotry of late hath been much diminished. Since their independence, there is no established religion in the province, but every sect is allowed the free exercise of their religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws. The Connecticut province hath also provided a bishop for the Episcopalians among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the Nonjuring bishops of the Episcopal church in that kingdom, which ceremony was performed at Aberdeen.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston, the capital of New England, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachusetts's bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this

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bay are several rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail through abreast; but within the harbour there is room for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, the most regular fortress in all the plantations. This castle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, so that it is scarcely possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprise, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row of warehouses for the merchants, and to this pier ships of the greatest burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built. Boston contains at present about 18,000 inhabitants; 50 years ago they were more numerous. The surprising increase of Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Anne, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and the island of Nantucket, hath checked the growth and trade of the capital. The trade of Boston was, however, so very considerable, that, in the year 1768, 1200 sail entered or cleared at the Custom-house there. Both the town and trade of Boston greatly suffered during the war with Great Britain; but since, the trade of Boston has again considerably increased.

Cambridge, in the same province, four miles from Boston, has an university, containing two spacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard college, and Stoughton Hall; with a well-furnished library. It consists of a president, five fellows, a treasurer, three professors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was first granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony seal.

The other towns in New-England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New-England is great, as it supplies a large quantity of goods from within itself; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and to the West Indies, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty-free; also masts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl ashes, staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they sent to the French and Dutch sugar islands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other British isles; as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod-fish dried. They likewise sent thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe-staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-skins and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very considerable. They have a most valuable fishery upon their coasts in mackarel and cod, which employs vast numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and West-Indies, to a considerable amount. Their whale-fishery has been already mentioned. The arts most necessary to subsistence, are those which the inhabitants of New-England have been at the greatest pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, distilling, paper-making, and salt-works, are upon the improving hand. The business of ship-building is one of the most considerable, which Boston, Newbury, and the other sea-port towns in New-England carry on. Ships are sometimes

built here upon commission; but frequently, the merchants of New England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish oil principally, they send them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late unhappy differences arose, the amount of English manufactures, and India goods sent into this colony from Great Britain, was not less, at an average of three years, than 395,000*l*. Our imports from the same were calculated at 370,500*l*.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New-England is at present divided into the four provinces of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, King James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was some time called. No settlements, however, were made in New-England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. There they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious policy they were inclined to. The design, besides, had something in it noble, and admirably suited to the enterprising spirit of reformers in religion. With this view, having purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 persons embarked for New-England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even of many of the necessities of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves, for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles Town, and Boston, which last has since become the capital of New-England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry, which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New-England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in this age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking,

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which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigotted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions; and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New-England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New-Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New-England was distinguished), for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New-England, after being a-shipboard for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great measure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as was the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300l. were admitted to the

king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, resembling our house of lords; and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

By the laws of this province no person can be arrested, if there are any means of satisfaction; nor imprisoned, unless there be a concealment of effects. Adultery was formerly death to both parties.

To the Massachusetts government is united the ancient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

New Hampshire was still more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itself was appointed by the crown, but in other respects it agreed with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island preserved their ancient charters, and enjoyed the same privileges which the Massachusetts did formerly.

There were originally three sorts of governments established by the English on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government was properly so called, because the colony was immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remained sovereign of the colony; he appointed the governor, council, and officers of state, and the people only elected the representatives, as in England; such were the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New Hampshire, New-York, New Jersey, and both Carolinas, Georgia, East and West Florida, the West-India islands, and that of St. John's.

A charter government was so called, because the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner vested with sovereign authority to establish what sort of government they thought fit; and these charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in such governments, or rather corporations, the freemen did not only choose their representatives, but annually chose their governor, council, and magistrates, and made laws without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge, of the king; and were under no other restraint than this, that they enacted no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they did their charters were liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already observed, were the governments of Rhode Island and Connecticut, in New England, and such was that of the Massachusetts formerly, though some alterations were afterwards made in it. Such likewise were those of the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government was the proprietary, properly so called, because the proprietor was invested with sovereign authority: he appointed the governor, council, and magistrates, and the representatives were summoned in his name; and by their advice he enacted laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but by a large statute, the proprietor was to have the king's consent in the appointing a governor, when he did not reside in the plantation in person, and of a deputy-governor, when he did. And all the governors of the plantations were liable to be called to an account for their administration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governors lately subsisting, were those of Pennsylvania and Maryland.

But the government of New-England has been entirely changed, in consequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain: of the origin and progress of which an account hath been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American Congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town.

A constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that

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province, and took place in October 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it, with the power of enjoying, in safety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their prosperity and happiness. They expressed their gratitude to the great Legislator of the universe, for having afforded them, in the course of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or surprise, of entering into an original, explicit, and solemn compact with each other; and of forming a new constitution of civil government, for themselves and their posterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in society, publicly, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no subject should be hurt, molested or restrained, in his person, liberty, or estate, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience; or for his religious profession or sentiments; provided he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct others in their religious worship.

It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious societies, should, at all times, have the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their support and maintenance. That all monies paid by the subject to the support of public worship, and of the public teachers, should, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the support of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious sect or denomination, provided there were any on whose instructions he attended; otherwise it might be paid towards the support of the teacher or teachers of the parish or precinct in which the laid monies should be raised. That every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be equally under the protection of the law: and that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another, should ever be established by law.

It was likewise declared, that as all power resided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the several magistrates and officers of government, vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no subject should be arrested, imprisoned, despoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled or deprived of his life, liberty, or estate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legislature should not make any law, that should subject any person to a capital or infamous punishment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a state; and that it ought not, therefore, to be restrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in time of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the consent of the legislature; and that the military power should always be held in an exact subordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

It was likewise enacted, that the department of legislation should be formed by two branches, a senate, and a house of representatives; each of which should have a negative on the other. That the senators, and the members of the house of representatives, should be elected annually; and that every male person, being twenty-one years of age, or upwards, who had resided in any particular town in the commonwealth for the space of one year, and having a freehold estate within the said town, of the annual income of three pounds, or any estate of the value of sixty pounds, have a right to vote for senators and representatives of the district of which he was an inhabitant. The senators are 40, chosen in this proportion; county of Suffolk 6, Essex 6, Middlesex 5, Hampshire 4, Plymouth 3, Barnstable 1, Bristol 3, York 2, Duke's and Nantucket 1, Worcester 5, Cumberland 1, Lin-

coln 1, Berkshire 2. The house of representatives is chosen also in certain proportions, and paid by the constituent body. It was likewise enacted, that there should be a supreme executive magistrate, who should be styled, the governor of the commonwealth of Massachusetts, and also a lieutenant-governor, both of whom should be chosen annually, by the whole body of electors in the commonwealth, and assisted by nine counsellors, chosen by ballot, out of the senate. The secretary, treasurer, receiver-general, notaries public, and naval officers, are chosen annually by the senators and representatives. The judiciary power to be septennial, and the delegates to congress shall be annually elected by and out of the senate and house of representatives, or general court. The governor has a negative on bills sent to him for assent from the general court, but has no control in their choice of officers.

The state of Rhode Island continue to admit their original charter as the rule of their government, it containing an ample grant of all powers legislative, executive, and judicial. New Hampshire and Connecticut have not yet finally established their forms of government, but have chiefly adopted that of Massachusetts Bay.

It is worthy of notice that since the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the colonies, and even while that war was carried on with great animosity on both sides, an act was passed, on the 4th of May 1780, by the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts Bay, for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the first members were named in the act, and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, geographical observations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to cultivate every art and science, which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

N E W Y O R K.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	300	} between	{ 40 and 46 north latitude.	}	24,000.
Breadth	150		{ 72 and 76 west longitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and Southwest, by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the East and North-East, by New-England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-west, by Canada.

This province, including the Island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the ten following counties:

Counties.				Chief Towns.	
New York	—	—	}	New York	{ 40-40 N. lat.
Albany	—	—	—	Albany	{ 74-00 W. lon.
Ulster	—	—	—		
Duchess	—	—	}	None	

Orange	—	—	—	Orange	
West-Chester	—	—	—	West-Chester	
King's	—	—	—	None	
Queen's	—	—	—	Jamaica	
Suffolk	—	—	—	Southampton	} Long Island.
Richmond	—	—	—	Richmond.	

RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish; on this the cities of New York and Albany are situated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAVES.] These are Cape May on the East entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the South of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of the other American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York stands on the South-west end of York-Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad and proves a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. The city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. In the year 1776, when the king's troops took it, some incendiaries attempted to destroy it by fire, and one fourth part of it was burnt down. A great part of the inhabitants, now computed about 15,000, are descended from the Dutch families, who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province is supposed to contain 200,000. The better sort are rich and hospitable, and the lower ranks are easy in their circumstances; at least this was the case before the commencement of the civil war; and both classes are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their society and conversation more agreeable than in most countries either of Europe or America.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000*l.* and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000*l.*

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] All religious denominations, except Jews and Catholics enjoyed equal privileges here, as there is no established church, unless the eighth article of capitulation made on the surrender of the place ("The Dutch shall enjoy the liberty of their consciences in divine worship and church discipline"), may be termed an establishment. Judaism was tolerated, but Roman Catholics were not. The inhabitants of the province consist chiefly of Dutch, English, and Scots presbyterians, German Calvinists, Lutherans, quakers, baptists, &c. who have their respective houses of worship. The Dutch

presbyterians being in subordination to the Classis of Amsterdam, used to send all their youth, who are intended for the ministry, to Holland for ordination, as the episcopalians do theirs to England*. But by the late constitution of New York since its independence, it is ordained, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed within that state to all mankind.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664, and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, since which time it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain), had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.

By the constitution of the state of New York, established in 1777, the supreme legislative power was vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one to be called, "The Assembly of the States of New York," to consist of 70 members annually chosen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York;" to consist of 24 for four years, who together are to form the legislature, and to meet once, at least, in every year, for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power is to be vested in a governor, who is to continue in office three years, assisted by four counsellors chosen by and from the senate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who shall possess a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor, and the members of the senate, are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the judges, &c. are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

• In the year 1740, the number of places for public worship in the city of New York stood as follows:

Dutch Presbyterians	3	Baptists	1
English ditto	2	Moravians	1
Scottish ditto	1	German Calvinists	2
Episcopalians	3	Lutherans	1
French refugees	1	Methodists	1
Quakers	1	Jews	1

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NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	160	} between {	39 and 43 north latitude.	}	10,000
Breadth	60		74 and 76 west longitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the West and South-west by Delaware river and Bay; on the South-east and East, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's river, on the North.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
East Division contains	Middlesex	Perth-Amboy and New-Brunswick
	Monmouth	None
	Essex	Elizabeth and Newark
	Somerset	None
	Bergen	Bergen
West Division contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON { 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon.
	Gloucester	
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland	Hopewell
	Cape May	None
	Hunterdon	Trenton
	Morris	Morris
	Suffex	None

RIVERS.] These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the same with that of New-York; the soil is various, at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land, which we have observed was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of Jersey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted: after which it became a royal government. By an account published in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000, but the number is supposed to have increased since to 130,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the seats of government; the governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as most on the continent; and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships. Both have been lately made free ports for 25 years. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is supplied with merchandises of all kinds, and makes returns to them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

By the new charter of rights established by the provincial congress, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jersey is now vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders, and worth at least

one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be chosen out and by the general assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The state of religion here formerly may be seen by the following list of the houses for public worship throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council for the province*. According to the present constitution of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in that manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any other church or churches, or for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this province, in preference to another; and no protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was established at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher, in 1746, and has a power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There were generally, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, between 80 and 100 students here, who came from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. The damages it sustained during the late war, are computed at 5000 l.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300 } between { 74 and 81 west longitude. }		
Breadth 240 }	{ 39 and 44 north latitude. }	15,000

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West; and contains the following counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA, } N. lat. 40.
Chester	Chester } W. lon. 75-20.
Bucks	Newtown
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Easton
Lancaster	Lancaster
York	York
Cumberland	Carlisle

* English and Scotch Presbyterians	57	Moravians	—	—	—	1
Quakers	39	Separatist	—	—	—	1
Dutch Presbyterians	22	Rogereens	—	—	—	1
Episcopalians	22					
Baptists	22					
Lutherans	7					
						In all 172

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Bedford, a country westward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchased from the Indians in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established, in 1771.

Besides the preceding there are the three following

Counties.		Chief Towns.	
Newcastle	} on Delaware	Newcastle	
Kent and		Dover	
Sussex		Lewes;	

which formed in some measure a distinct government, having an assembly of their own, though the same governor with the province of Pennsylvania: but is now distinct, and called the "Delaware State," having a president, council, and house of assembly. The president is chosen out of the general assembly by ballot, and the executive power lodged in him and a privy-council of two of the legislative council of nine, and two of the house of assembly, which consists of 21 representatives, seven for each county. The judges and other officers of state, civil and military, are chosen by the president and general assembly.

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable for vessels of one sort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Susquehanna and Schuylkill are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND } The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } not materially differ from those of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot, but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of the British plantations, from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, PO- } This country, under the name of the
ULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } New Netherland, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation in a character no less respectable is universal among all civilized nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the great and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of

the colony. No laws can be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people transported themselves into Pennsylvania than into all the other settlements together. In short, this province has increased greatly from the time of its first establishment. Upon the principal rivers, settlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The present number of inhabitants are estimated at 320,000. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad: and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufactured most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German-Town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves all our attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schuylkill, on the south, which it unites, as it were, by running in a line of two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner: every quarter of the city forms a square of eight acres, and almost in the centre of it is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The high street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other streets, which are crossed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the usefulness of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of 1000 acres in the province, had his house either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High Street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, besides the above mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the house, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building, both for magnificence, and situation, in all British America. The barracks for the troops, the market and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine; and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

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There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprising, when we consider the great trade which it carried on with the English, Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated, the Germans, who are settled in the interior parts of this province, employ several hundred waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 vessels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000*l*. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500*l*. But such was the spirit of adventuring in trade, after the conclusion of the late war, the duty in Philadelphia upon imported goods of 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*, produced from the first of March 1784, to the 1st of December 132,000*l*.; which supposing that their value was not under rated, nor any smuggling to save the duty, makes their value correspond to 3,168,000*l*. sterling.

There is an academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, did fair to become a bright seminary of learning.

It was at Philadelphia that the general congress of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778, the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

In 1776, the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new constitution of government for that colony. They determined, that the commonwealth, or state of Pennsylvania, should be governed hereafter by an assembly of the representatives of the freemen of the same, and a president and council. That the supreme legislative power should be vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the commonwealth or state of Pennsylvania. That the supreme executive power should be vested in a president and council of twelve. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having resided in Pennsylvania one year before the day of election for representatives, and paid public taxes during that time, should enjoy the right of an elector; and that the sons of freeholders, of twenty-one years of age, should be entitled to vote, although they had not paid taxes. That the house of representatives of the freemen of this commonwealth should consist of persons most noted for wisdom and virtue, to be chosen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth respectively. And that no person should be elected, unless he had resided in the city or county for which he should be chosen two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued such, should hold any other office, except in the militia. That no person should be capable of being elected a member to serve in the house of representatives of the freemen of this commonwealth more than four years in seven. That the members of the house of representatives should be chosen annually by ballot, and should be styled, "The general assembly of representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania," and should have power to choose their speaker, the treasurer of the state, and their other officers, to prepare bills and enact them into laws, to redress grievances, impeach state criminals, and have all other powers necessary for the legislature of a free state or

commonwealth. That delegates to represent Pennsylvania in congress should be annually chosen by ballot, in the general assembly of representatives.

That the supreme executive council of this state should consist of twelve persons, to be chosen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the several counties of Pennsylvania. That a president, and vice-president, of this council, should be chosen annually. That the president, and in his absence the vice-president, with the council, five of whom are to be a quorum, should have power to appoint and commissionate judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers civil and military. That the president shall be commander in chief of the forces of the state, but shall not command in person, except advised thereto by the council, and then only so long as they shall approve. That all trials shall be by jury; and that freedom of speech, and of the press, shall not be restrained. That all persons in public offices should declare their belief in one God, the creator, and governor of the universe, the rewarder of the good, and the punisher of the wicked; and also acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be given by divine inspiration. A variety of other particulars were also contained in this plan of government; wherein it was likewise determined, that the freemen of this commonwealth, and their sons, should be trained and armed for its defence, under such regulations, restrictions, and exceptions, as the general assembly should by law direct, preserving always to the people the right of choosing their colonel, and all commissioned officers under that rank, in such manner and as often as by the said laws should be directed. Two persons also are to be chosen by ballot every year for each county and city by the freemen to be called "the Council of Censors," who are to examine into the conduct of the legislative and executive powers.

M A R Y L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 140 } between { 75 and 80 west longitude. }		
Breadth 135 }	{ 37 and 40 north latitude. }	12,000

BOUNDARIES. **B**OUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the West.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake, viz. 1. The eastern; and 2. The western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief towns.
The east division contains the counties of	Worcester — — —	Princess Anne
	Somerfet — — —	Snow Hill
	Dorset — — —	Dorset, or Dorchester
	Talbot — — —	Oxford
	Cecil — — —	Queen's Town
	Queen Anne's — — —	Chester
The west division contains	Kent — — —	St. Mary's
	St. Mary's — — —	Bristol
	Charles — — —	Masterkout
	Prince George — — —	Abington
	Calvert — — —	ANNAPOLIS, W. Ion.
	Arundel — — —	76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Harford — — —	Baltimore.
	Baltimore — — —	
	Frederic — — —	

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RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Sassafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, &c.] In these particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, that is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, which is the staple commodity of that country, and hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, and is supposed to be about 220,700. The commerce of Maryland depends on the same principles with that of Virginia, and is so closely connected with it, that any separation of them would rather confuse than instruct. It will be considered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It seems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like those we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they however were peopled by protestants, and even sectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Roman-catholics were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, one in greatest favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of Englishmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 catholic families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with Lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguishes gentlemen of every religion, bought their land at an easy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this catholic colony, and inflamed the Indians against them by ill-grounded reports, but such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so.

The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave new spring to the activity of this plantation; which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the Protector, substituted in his room. At the Restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the Revolution Lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the go-

vernment, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The customs too were reserved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them were independent of the government of the province. At length, as the protestants became far more numerous, they excluded the catholics from all offices of trust and power and even adopted the penal laws of England against them. The church of England was by law established here, and the clergy were paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpose was annually levied, and every male white person above the age of 16 was obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco, (or if he raised no tobacco, he must take an oath that he did not, and pay the value in cash); dissenting clergy were not exempted. But since the civil war, by the declaration of rights and the constitution agreed to in their convention of delegates at Annapolis, August 14, 1776, the legislature is now to consist of two distinct branches, the senate and the house of delegates; the latter to be annually chosen, *viva voce*, by the freeholders in each county, viz. St. Mary's, Charles, Calvert, Prince-George, Anne-Arundel, Baltimore, Frederick, Harford, Cecil, Kent, Queen-Anne, Talbot, Dorset, Caroline, Somerset, and Worcester, four delegates each, and the city of Annapolis and Baltimore-town two each, delegates for the senate to be elected in like manner every five years, two for each county, out of whom are to be chosen fifteen Senators, by ballot, *i. e.* nine for the Western shore and six for the Eastern. The executive power is vested in a council, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly, who may appoint the chancellor, judges, field-officers, &c. but the sheriffs and justices of the peace are chosen by the freeholders in each county. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is, *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit or trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Chester-town in this province, under the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, in honour of General Washington.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 750	between { 75 and 90 west longitude.	{ 80,000.
Breadth 240	{ 36 and 40 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-east; by the Atlantic ocean, on the East; by Carolina, on the South; and the river Mississippi, on the West.

It may be divided into four parts, viz. The North; the Middle; the South; and the Eastern division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Parishes.
The north division contains	1. Northumberland —	{ Wincomoca Christ-Church
	2. Lancashire —	
	3. Westmoreland —	{ St. Paul's
	4. Richmond —	
	5. Stafford —	

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Divisions.	Counties.	Parishes:
The middle division contains	6. Essex —	Farnham
	7. Middlesex —	Christ-Church
	8. Gloucester —	Abingdon
	9. King and Queen —	Stratton
	10. King William —	St. John's
	11. New Kent —	St. Peter's
	12. Elizabeth —	Elizabeth
	13. Warwick —	Denby
	14. York —	York
	15. Princess Anne —	Lynnhaven.
	16. Norfolk —	Elizabeth
	17. Nanfamund —	Chutakuk
	18. Isle of Wight —	Newport
	19. Surry —	Southwark
	20. Prince George —	Wayanoke
The fourth division contains	21. Charles —	Westover
	22. Henrico —	Bristol
	23. James. —	James Town
		WILLIAMSBURG,
The eastern division between Chesapeake bay and the ocean.		37-12 N. lat. 76-48
	24. Accomac —	West. long.
		Accomac.

CAVES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the water in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country in the world of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door. To the westward of the province, is the Ohio, a large river which after a long course falls into the Mississippi.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of the country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore, before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on without the least warning. To a warm day there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains;

in May and June, the heat increases; and the summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease and increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the sea-shore, and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness in the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, helped by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or brush grows beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade to defend them from the sun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root, and the ginseng of the Chinese, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant, which is here most excellent, far surpassing all other countries, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption, but for exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the southern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to twopence a pound; their fattest pullets at six pence a-piece; chickens, at three or four shillings a dozen; geese, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fish and wild fowl were still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal, called the Opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat, mentioned by Charlevoix, in his history of Canada. It is about the size of a cat; and besides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which discovers a large number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow in bulk, and weight to their appointed size; when they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

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HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh, the most extraordinary genius of the age in which he lived, perhaps in any age, applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and settle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who failed into Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almost the same situation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeake bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected.

The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the Cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the Restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints on trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy themselves.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconvenience of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled Honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative

as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his Majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as a privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment: it sometimes acted as a court of Chancery.

The present government of this province as settled in convention at Williamsburg, July 5th, 1776, is that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments be separate and distinct. The house of delegates to be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta; and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of 24 members, who are also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into 20 districts. The executive is a governor and privy-council of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the delegates to congress, the judges and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the governor and council.

The number of white people in Virginia, which is daily encreasing, is supposed to amount to above 300,000. The negroes, of whom some thousands were annually imported into Virginia and Maryland, are numerous; they thrive, too, much better here than in the West Indies. The inhabitants of Virginia are a cheerful, hospitable, and in general a genteel sort of people: some of them are accused of vanity and ostentation; which accusation is not without some ground. Here are only two towns which deserve that name; the largest of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamsburg, containing about sixty houses, and some spacious public buildings. It is about 40 miles from the mouth of James's River, and seven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, and before the present war, contained many taverns and public houses, for the entertainment of mariners. York-Town and Gloucester will ever be famous for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces were supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000 l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to 96,000. Of these, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogheads were consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26 l. 1 s. per hoghead, came to 351,675 l. the remaining 82,500 hogheads were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employed 330 sail of ships, and 7960 seamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very sinews of our national strength, were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000 l. The exports of Great Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000 l.

Though an entire toleration was allowed to all religions in this country, there were, before the commencement of the civil war, few dissenters from the church of England. The bishop of London used to send over a superintendent to inspect the character of the clergy: who lived comfortably here (a priest to each parish), with about 100 l. per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is also a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000 l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000 l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

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NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length 700 } Breadth 380 }	between { 76 and 91 west longitude. 30 and 37 north latitude.	{ 110,000

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Mississippi, on the West.

Divisions.	Counties.	Towns.
North Carolina contains the counties of —	Albemarle Bath, and Clarendon in part	Newburn Edenton Wilmington
The middle division, or South Carolina, contains the counties of —	Clarendon in part Craven Berkeley Colleton	St. James Christ-Church
The South division contains only Georgia —	Granville Richmond Effingham Chatham Camden Wilkes Glynn Burke Liberty	CHARLES-TOWN, W. lon. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45. Port-Royal. SAVANNAH, N. lat. 31-55. W. long. 80-20. Sunbury Frederica Purisburgh.

RIVERS.] These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamlico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatomaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divide Georgia from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi or the gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only sea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burthen cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the best are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle River, Pamlico, and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatomaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 degrees odd minutes north latitude, Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Carteret still farther south.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any considerable difference between the climate of these countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but, where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The summers, indeed, are of a more intense heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and shorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is subject to sudden transitions, from heat to cold, and cold to heat; but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to

freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE } In this respect, too, there is a considerable coincidence
OF THE COUNTRY. } between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not so good a soil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one forest, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests mostly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfect white sand: yet it bears the pine tree, and some other useful plants, naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peas; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even answers for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that this worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the sea, not a hill, not a rock, nor scarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than in the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil might be produced in these colonies: of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed of these valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beside these, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these, the three great staple commodities at present are, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight, than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of these trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry

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30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have still a greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows: these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods. It is surprising the cattle should have encreased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such members of wolves, tygers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed that these animals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

**HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } The first English expeditions into Carolina-
CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. }** were unfortunate. Nothing successful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, which invested them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was designed to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, the disputes between the church of England-men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown.

The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000*l.* for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from royal colonies, was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, too, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two separate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe; and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000*l.* from the government, was given to provide necessaries for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all

the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprung up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of British America, was to pitch upon a void space of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of 20 l. for 1000 acres, and one shilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase-money: the former method is the most common, and the tenure a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with to all strangers, and especially to such as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themselves.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South Carolina, which for size, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in America. It is admirably situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houses, and was the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were shewy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspired to make this by much the liveliest, the loveliest, and politest place, as it is one of the richest too, in all America. It ought also to be observed, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessities of life; those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt against Great Britain; and in 1780, Charles-Town being besieged by the king's troops, surrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms prisoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the siege had continued seven weeks.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ships, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000 l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000 l. The exports of North-Carolina were computed at about 70,000 l. and its imports to 18,000 l. The trade of Georgia is likewise in its infancy; the export amounted to little more than 74,000 l. and the imports to 49,000 l.

The trade between Carolina and the West-Indies was the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flourishing condition; and they formerly carried English goods on pack-horses 5 or 600 miles into the country west of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon

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their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village; they were lately projecting a town farther south, which would be more central.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the second town, called Augusta, which stands in a country of the greatest fertility, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you see the whole course of the river towards the sea: and on the other hand, you see the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who used to cross the Atlantic every other year) founded an orphan-house, which is now converted to a very different use.

In October 1779, the town Savannah being in possession of the King's troops, was besieged by 8000 of the American and French troops in conjunction; but they were bravely repulsed by the King's troops, with a great slaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah and Charles-Towns, with the rest of the provinces, were afterwards evacuated and restored to the Americans.

The number of inhabitants by a late estimation is 200,000 in North Carolina; 170,000 in South Carolina, and 25,000 in Georgia.

The government of North Carolina settled in convention at Halifax, December 18th, 1776 is, in a legislature of two separate bodies, the senate and house of commons. One senator and two representatives to be chosen by ballot annually, by the freemen and freeholders of each county, and one commoner for each of the towns of Edenton, Newburn, Wilmington, Salisbury, and Halifax. The executive power is a governor and seven counsellors, annually chosen by and out of the general assembly by joint ballot, who also appoint the judges, field-officers, secretary, treasurer, &c. The justices are recommended by the people, as also the sheriffs; and the delegates to congress are elected annually out of the general assembly by joint ballot.

The constitution established by the council and assembly, March 28, 1778, for South Carolina, is, that the legislative authority be vested in the general assembly, consisting of the senate and house of representatives separately, each being elected by the freemen and freeholders of the several parishes and districts in the state, every two years, in certain proportions; the former of 23 and the latter of 202 members. The executive power is that of a governor, lieutenant-governor, and eight privy-counsellors, elected out of the general assembly by joint ballot every two years, who also choose delegates to congress annually. Justices of the peace, sheriffs, and other judicial, military, and revenue officers, are nominated by the assembly and commissioned by the governor.

The constitution agreed to in convention for Georgia, February 5, 1777, is, the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments shall be distinct and separate bodies. The legislative to consist of representatives elected by the freemen and freeholders annually, by ballot, in each county, viz. Wilkes, Richmond, Burke, Effingham, Chatham, ten members each; Liberty fourteen; Glynn and Camden one each; the town of Savannah four, and Sunbury two. These 72 representatives to constitute the house of assembly, out of whom are chosen, by ballot, the governor and executive council of two from each of the first six counties; and also the delegates to congress, annually. The subordinate officers of the state are appointed by the respective bodies, and the several courts they depend on.

THE APOCHRYPHAL STATES*.

The present Apochryphal States are Franklin, Kentucke and Vermont.

F R A N K L I N.

FRANKLIN is a new state, carved out of North Carolina; the separation from which was warmly opposed by the parent state, and continued as long as opposition would avail any thing. They have now formed a government and laws of their own, having a house of representatives and senate, and courts of justice similar to those of North Carolina. Their local situation, (behind the great Alleghaney mountains) secures them against all apprehension of conquest, or even of attack. Deputies have been lately sent by the different settlements on the western waters, to meet in general convention at Nashville, in order to arrange and satisfy articles of confederation and union between them and the state of Franklin.

They have at present little commerce; what goods they want they purchase generally from Petersburg, in the state of Virginia, or New-Bern in North Carolina.

They have lately opened a land office in favour of this state and of congress.

K E N T U C K E.

THIS country was first discovered by one McBride, in 1754. Its central part is situated near the latitude 38° N. and 85° W. Long. It is bounded on the North by Sandy Creek, by the Ohio on the N. W. by North Carolina on the South, and by Cumberland mountains on the East.

The principal counties are Lincoln, Fayette and Jefferson, in which are eight towns, viz.

Louisville and	} at the falls of Ohio, in Jefferson County.
Beardstown,	
Lexington	} in Fayette County.
Lees Town and	
Grenville,	
Harrodsburg,	} in Lincoln County.
Danville and	
Boonsborough,	

In all these, as well as in many other places, are houses for the inspection of tobacco.

The Ohio † bounds Kentucke in its whole length, one mile wide. Its general course 60 degrees west. It is watered by many rivers, and the greatest part of the soil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part of America.

Near a place called Licking River is found a pure salt rock; this stream runs parallel with the Ohio, and is seven miles from Limestone Creek, where there is a fine harbour, and now a common landing place. The Ohio, (the great reservoir of all the numerous rivers that flow into it from both sides), has many fine vallies, opposite to each of which there is a hill, the valley and the hills changing sides alternately.

* The account of these states, is extracted from a well authenticated work lately published, and communicates information not to be found in *any other* Edition of a Geography.

† Kentucke river falls into the Ohio, and is 627 miles from Fort Pitt, but extends in every direction over a tract of the finest and most fertile country in the world.

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There are buffalo, bear, deer, elk, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them.

In the rivers are the finest fish, and abundant. Salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook fish, but no herrings.

The warbling tenants of the grove are here numerous, and exhibit all the variety of feathered beauty, as well as the melody of Sylvan song. The Parquet is common here, as is the ivory bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume. The bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a surprising noise like a man in distress.

Its natural curiosities are astonishing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine limestone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres, full of human skeletons.

There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps answer all the purposes of the finest oil. There are many allum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which when refined is equal to any in the world.

At a salt spring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America, the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long *.

Dr. Hunter said it could not be the elephant, and that from the form of the teeth, it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent both to France and England.

What animal this is; and by what means its ruins are found in these regions, (where none such now exist,) are very difficult questions, and variously resolved. The variety of conjectures serves only to prove the futility of all.

Among the natural curiosities of this place, the winding banks, or rather precipices of Kentucke river, are particularly deserving to be recorded. The astonished eye there beholds almost every where three or four hundred feet of a solid perpendicular limestone rock. In some parts a fine white marble. These precipices are like the sides of a deep trench or canal, the land above, level and crowned with fine groves of red cedar. It is only at particular places that this river can be crossed; one of which is worthy of admiration. A great road large enough for waggons to pass, is actually made by buffaloes; sloping with an easy descent from the top to the bottom of a very steep hill, near the river above Lee's Town.

The Mississippi and Ohio, are the keys to the northern parts of the western continent. The usual rout to Kentucke is from Philadelphia or Baltimore, (by the way of Petersburg.) From the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans (a distance not exceeding 460 miles in a straight line) is 856 by water. The mouth empties itself by several channels into the gulph of Mexico.

An idea may be formed of the astonishing emigration to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops stationed at Fort Harmer at the mouth of the Muskingum.

From the 10th of October, 1786, to the 12th of May, 1787. 177 boats, containing 2689 souls. 1353 horses. 766 cattle. 112 waggons and two phaetons, besides a very considerable number that passed in the night, unobserved.

It is at present peopled by above one hundred and fifty thousand settlers. From the interior settlements of this vast country, America will derive her future greatness, and establish new empires to rival, and perhaps outdo the ancient world.

No. XXIX.

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* The ribs 7 feet, the thigh bones 4 feet, the tusks a foot long, the grinders five inches square and eight long. The tusks are real ivory.

V E R M O N T.

THE state of Vermont is a vast country, situated eastward of New Hampshire, south of Massachusetts, and west of New-York. It is 155 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The capital of the state is Bennington.

The Allens are the chiefs or head men of the country. It is governed by its own laws, independent of Congress and the States. Hitherto it has been an object of contention between the states of New-York and New Hampshire. The people had, for a long time, no other name than Green Mountain Boys, which they frenchified into Verdmont, and since corrupted into the easier pronunciation of Vermont.

These antique forests, into which the arm of man is just carrying the destructive ax, every where afford the most grand and sublime prospects. Little of the land of this state is yet cleared, but the emigrations to it from other states are great, and it will soon become well cultivated, and equal in fertility to the states it approximates. Its population is said already to amount to 150,000.

The states of New-York and Pennsylvania have large tracts of fertile land, extending to the lakes proper for the forming of settlements, and very capital ones have lately been made. This country will in future prove one of the most advantageous commercial situations in America, having in a manner the key of Canada, and of all the northern Indian trades; the navigation extending from the western sea to the lakes, has no other obstruction than small portages, which in time will be converted into canals. The fur trade will chiefly centre in this country.

In the inland country of Virginia, and North Carolina, the settlements in many parts extend to the mountains. In the eastern parts of Virginia, settlements have been made in the mountains themselves, where some industrious Germans (who found the lands in the vallies taken up,) have established considerable plantations.

South Carolina has immense tracts of fertile land unsettled.

The state of Virginia, possessing lands on the other side the mountains, (and having more immediate communication with the Ohio country on the river,) many thousands have passed over them, and settled themselves in that tract, which lies between the mountains and the river. It is said some emigrants have crossed that river, and settled in the country bordering upon the lakes.

By a late settlement, the country to the southward of the Ohio is included in the state of Virginia. All the country to the northward of this great river, extending from Pennsylvania to the east, the lakes on the north and the Mississippi on the west, are intended to be divided by congress into ten new states, viz.

WASHINGTON,	PESILIPA,	ILLINOIA,	SARATOGA,	ASSENIFI,
METROPOTAMIA,	MICHIGANIA,	CHERRONESUS,	SYLVANIA,	POLYPOFAMIA.

These ten states (spreading over an immense tract of land,) are traversed by the great river Ohio, in a course of 1200 miles, receiving into its waters the innumerable rivers which are scattered over the whole country. On the North they are bounded by the five great lakes, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; which empty themselves into the river St. Laurence. On the East they have the states of New-York, Pennsylvania and Virginia, whose navigation (as well as the St. Laurence) affords them a direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean. On the South they are partly bounded by the mountains, and on the West by the vast river Mississippi, (whose source is unknown,) and which after flowing through the great continent of America, (admitting into its swelling waves the tributes of a thousand waters,) falls into the gulph of Mexico.

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W E S T I N D I E S.

W^E have already observed, that between the two continents of America, lie a multitude of islands, which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, as well as mention some other particulars that are peculiar to the West Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the south, they are continually subjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly rains from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add in the East Indies) are by no means so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water*. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season: but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time; and this cause, perhaps, as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes; the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East Indies) from the climate; this destroys, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planters;

* See Wafer's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

and often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see as the prelude to the ensuing havock, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The hurricanes come on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, observe these signs. That day you will see the sky very turbulent; you will observe the sun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of burs; the north-west sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady easterly stream, and shifts about to the west; from whence it sometimes blows with intermissions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great bur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the approach of a hurricane.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; the commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brasil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best, sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North-America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits at the first view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000*l*. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to

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acquire a fortune, a life of idleness and luxury; at all times he must keep a watchful eye upon his overseers, and even oversee himself occasionally. But at the boiling season, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to health; from a constant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and so many fiery furnaces; add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, the bad seasons; and then consider when the sugars are in the cask, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. These considerations might make one believe, that it could never answer to engage in this business; but, notwithstanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l.* a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation, one to about 30 negroes, with a salary of about 40*l.* Such plantations too have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the flock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and flock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12*l.* annually. The price of men negroes upon their first arrival is from 30 to 36*l.* women and grown boys 50*s.* less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above 40*l.* upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man expert in business bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our West Indies at least 230,000 negro slaves; and, upon the highest calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more visible every day, some writers have endeavoured to account for, by alleging, that the enterprising spirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent causes, had produced

in the last century, has decayed very much. That the disposition of the West Indians themselves, who for cheapness choose to do every thing by negroes which can possibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the small number of whites of the lower stations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in constant terror of insurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial servants, who are infinitely the most dangerous of the slaves, and in case of any insurrection, they have it more in their power to strike a sudden and fatal blow: and the cruelty with which the negroes are often treated, gives the white inhabitants too much reason for their apprehensions, that the negroes may endeavour to revenge themselves upon their masters.

The first observation that has been mentioned, in order to account for the present disproportion between the freemen and the negroes in the West-Indies, we think it not well founded; that enterprising spirit which first led Britons out to discovery, and colonization, still animates in a very considerable degree the people of this nation; but the field has been lately more ample and enlarged, and emigrants have had greater scope whereon to range. Besides the vast continent of North America, which takes in such a variety of climates, and discovers such a richness of soil; the East Indies, an inexhaustible mine of riches, have in some degree drawn the attention of mankind from that of the West. Countries, as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for something extraordinary, and have their day. Many of the best families of this nation are ambitious of procuring places for their sons in the East Indies. Here is an ample field for all adventurous spirits, who, disdain an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming useful to themselves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immense regions of this Eastern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent disposition, but with less conduct and inferior abilities, set out with the most sanguine hopes. These are your fiery restless tempers, willing to undertake the severest labour, provided it promises but a short continuance; who love risk and hazard, whose schemes are always vast, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

THE islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the River Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into the Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagen, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the Great and Little Antilles.

[JAMAICA.] The first that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles south-west of England.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains, which often fall, or the mists which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows

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in great plenty. The vallies or plains between these ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as have been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, sourfops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries; also garden stuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome and hardy, and when well made generally sell for 30 or 40 l. sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasps; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy

the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500*l.* per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000*l.* per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the American islands is the same, namely, that kind which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at present that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Besides these, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a sort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in some respects useful to the inhabitants of the island, particularly in sending back run-away slaves.

Indigo was once very greatly cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps the whole island exceeds not at this day; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though they had not those vast fortunes which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes. The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, rises from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain; as that they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, who are enabled to undersell them by the lowness of their duties, the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect the other islands, have been heard, and some remedies applied; others remain undressed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between Great Britain and the Spanish nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right, and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to us, the latter was permitted; because we thought, and very justly, that if the Spaniards found themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it, by their guarda costas, which cruise in these seas, purposely to seize and confiscate such vessels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the British court argue, till the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to send English cruisers to the American coast, effectually to crush

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that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of British subjects in America loudly complained, as it put a stop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit so largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places; and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it forever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de le Vega, or Spanish town, which though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea-port-town of Savannah-la-Mer, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of people were killed. Much damage was also done, and many lives lost, in other parts of the island.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. First, sugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogheads, some vastly great, even to a tun-weight, which cannot be worth less in England than 424,725 l. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, slaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain.

Third, molasses, in which they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple the sugar cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spanish Main goes on, which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, while it is so profitable to the British merchant, and while the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, shew so great a respect to presents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as in most other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner, instantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable. This obliges all the treasure they receive to make but a very short stay, being hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. At other times they generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who attend gentlemen, who have them dressed in their own livery, have once a year Osnaburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them: before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dress.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for a shilling per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum-punch, which they call Kill-Devil, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here upon their first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl, and fish, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton sells at nine pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes are truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they receive. It is said, that they are stubborn and untractable, for the most part, and that they must be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, though some

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of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situation easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations who have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise, to many of them, be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprising to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy enter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Carribbees, is situated in 59 degrees west lon. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves to this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its first settlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. A practice, which has rendered the Carribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676, it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this small spot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers.

At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were about 350,000*l.* and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of 50 years. But since that time, this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar-colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the

neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000*l.* per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houses were destroyed, not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea, and there perished.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.] This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 degrees west lon. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjointly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored to England by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 degrees west lon. and 17 degrees north lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West Indies, and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves.

GRANADA and the GRANADINES.] Granada is situated in 12 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. west lon. about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil of this island is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which these handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war but one, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the North, called the Granadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themselves masters of this island, though it was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and in 62 W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and thirteen in breadth: it got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is

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thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in the time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but it was restored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. N. lat. and 61 deg. W. lon. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here also fugitive, from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace, in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two small islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are said to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both these islands were taken by the French in 1782, but were restored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated 17 degrees 49 min. north lat. 61 deg. 50 min. west long. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 18 degrees north lat. 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 50 miles long, and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Exclusive of the West India sugar islands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims some others, that are seated at the distance of some thousand miles from each other, upon the coast of this quarter of the globe, of which we shall speak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is situated to the east of the gulf of St. Laurence, between 46 and 52 degrees north lat. and between 53 and 59 degrees west lon. separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle; and from Canada, by the Bay of St. Laurence, being 550 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage, for the cold is long-continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the sea-coast perhaps is no very remote prospect), it is said will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lum-

ber for the West India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employed 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock 300,000*l.* a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts; from which we may observe, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and the west coasts of the island; and the Americans are allowed the same privileges in fishing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John: but not above 1000 families remain here in winter. A small squadron of men of war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the commander of which is governor of the island.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, seated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that at Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were however dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburgh dismantled.

ST. JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that bar-

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barous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being first discovered by John Bermudas a Spaniard: and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated, at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 degrees north lat. and in 65 degrees west long. Their distance from the Land's end is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, "walled with rocks." The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAÏA, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 22 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees west long. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe.

These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage; the Isle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement, these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured these islands during the last war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and West India islands, we shall now proceed along the south-east coast of America, as far as the 52d degree of south lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland islands, situated near the



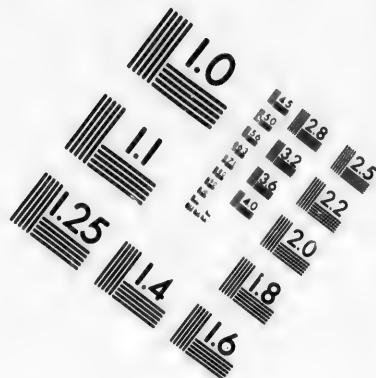
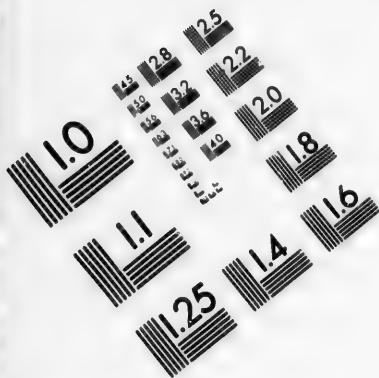
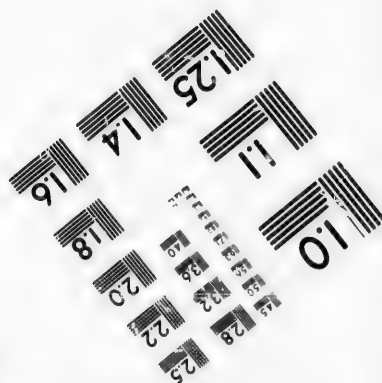
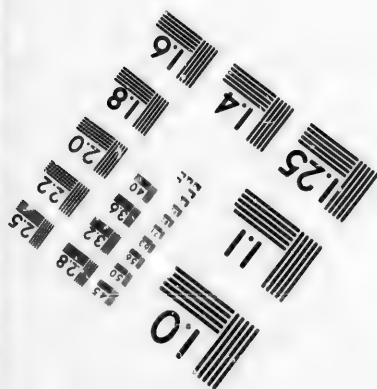
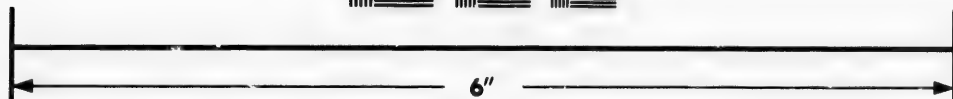
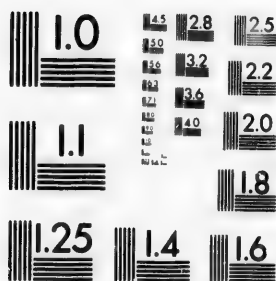


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Straits of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of south America. King Charles II. of England considered the discovery of this coast of such consequence, that Sir John Narborough was purposely fitted out to survey the Straits of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Patagonia, and the Spanish ports in that frontier; with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and a lasting correspondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental causes, failed, in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised so many advantages to England, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for farther trials of this kind, than any objection against them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. It is said, that his majesty Charles II. was so far prepossessed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was so eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's passing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to Gravesend to meet him.

"As therefore it appears (says the author of Anson's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South Seas must run a considerable risk of proving abortive, whilst in our passage thither we are under the necessity of touching at the Portuguese settlement of Brasil (where we may certainly depend on having our strength, condition, and designs betrayed to the Spaniards), the discovery of some place more to the southward, where ships might refresh, and supply themselves with the necessary sea-stock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from these embarrassments, and would surely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this seem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpose; one of them is Pepys' Island, in the latitude of 47, south, and laid down by Dr. Halley, about 80 leagues to the eastward of Cape Blanco, on the coast of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland's Isles*, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly south of Pepys' Island. The last of these have been seen by many ships, both French and English. Woodes Rogers, who ran along the north-east coast of these isles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle descents from hill to hill, and seemed to be good ground, interspersed with woods, and not destitute of harbours. Either of these places, as they are islands at a considerable distance from the continent, may be supposed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate sufficiently temperate. This even in time of peace, might be of great consequence to England; and, in time of war, would make us masters of those seas.

Falkland islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594; the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late lord Egmont, then first lord of the admiralty, revived the scheme of a settlement in the South-Seas, and commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland islands in the name of his Britannic majesty, and in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by captain M'Bride, who in 1766 succeeded that gentleman, as the outcasts of nature. "We found, says he, a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two ca-

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ble's length from the shore, must pass weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural luxuries of these islands.

But though the soil be barren, and the sea tempestuous, an English settlement was made here, of which we were dispossessed by the Spaniards in 1770. That violence was, however, disavowed by the Spanish ambassador, and some concessions were made to the court of Great Britain; but the settlement was finally abandoned in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	500	} between	{ 80 and 91 west longitude. 25 and 32 north latitude.	}	100,000
Breadth	440				

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louisiana, is bounded by Georgia on the North; by the Mississippi on the West; by the gulf of Mexico on the South; and by the Bahama straits on the East.

RIVERS.] These are the Mississippi, which forms the western boundary of Florida, and is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burthen; there being, according to Mitchel's Map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pym says seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Sambles, Anclote, St. Augustine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Various accounts have been given of these particulars in this country. The people who obtained grants of lands in Florida, when belonging to England, and were desirous to settle or sell them, represented the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Augustine, in East Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they told us, that the climate of Florida is an exceedingly agreeable medium betwixt the scorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees lose their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the winter is perceived, but so mild, that snow is never seen there; and the tenderest plants of the West Indies, such as the plaintain, the alligator pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the sugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter

in the gardens of St. Augustine; that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common in England, are unknown in this country; and though at the equinoxes, especially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for some weeks together; yet, when the shower is over, the sky immediately clears up, and all is calm and serene.

Others have represented this very coast as the grave and burying-place of all strangers who are so unhappy as to go there, affirming as a truth, the well-known story propagated soon after the last peace, That upon the landing of our troops to take possession of Florida, the Spaniards asked them, "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We shall take the liberty to observe on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas which environ and wash a considerable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the whole continent of North America, carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the southward in these regions, than the north-east wind does in Europe. That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who in these respects far exceed their more southern neighbours, the Mexicans; and when the Spaniards quitted St. Augustine, many of them were of great age, some above 90.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND } Many of the disadvantages indiscriminately, and with
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } very little foundation in truth, imputed to the soil of the whole country, should be confined to East-Florida, which indeed, near the sea, and 40 miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size, and produce better fruit, than in Spain or Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas; and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the necessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Mississippi.

From the climate of Florida, and some specimens sent to England, there is reason to expect, that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk, will grow here as well as in Persia, India, and China, which are in the same latitudes. This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quick-silver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coast of Florida: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle-horse in exchange for goods of five shillings value prime cost; and there are instances of horses being exchanged for a hatchet per head. Naval stores might be produced in great quantities in Florida; and West Florida has already supplied Spain with considerable quantities. It is said, that no province can so profitably furnish Madeira with corn and pipe-staves as West-Florida, and in return supply itself and other provinces with wines. The fisheries might likewise be rendered here very profitable, as might also the trade for furs, and various other branches.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, } Notwithstanding the luxuriancy of the soil, the salubrity
AND CHIEF TOWNS. } of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, and the encouragement of the British government, the number of English inhabitants here was never very considerable. Indeed the affairs of the colony appear to have been injudiciously managed; and the reduction of Pensacola: by the arms of the king of Spain in 1781, deprived us of those flattering prospects of great advantages to England, which were expected to have been derived from the possession of Florida.

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The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. lon. 87-20, which is seated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulf of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side. This place sent in skins, logwood, dying stuff, and silver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000 l. and received of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000 l.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. lon. 81-12, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

NEW MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	} between	{ 94 and 126 west longitude.		} 600,000
Breadth	1600		{ 23 and 43 north latitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana, on the East; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the South; and by the same ocean on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North-east division	{ New Mexico Proper }	{ SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. . N. lat. 36.
South-east division		St. Antonio.
South division	Sonora —	Tuape.
West division	California, a peninsula.	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, they experience great heats in the summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at least still preserve their independence; they are jealous of discovering the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in those countries, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies, and

becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, } The Spanish settlements here are compar-
RELIGION, AND COMMERCE. } ratively weak; though they are increasing
 every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 600 }	between { 83 and 110 west longitude. 8 and 30 north latitude. }	318,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the gulf of Mexico, on the North-east; by Terra Firma, on the South-east; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-west, containing three audiences.

Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
I. GALICIA.	1. Guadalajara	Guadalajara.
	2. Zacatecas	Zacatecas.
	3. New Biscay	St. Barbara.
	4. Cinolea	Cinolea.
	5. Culiacan	Culiacan.
	6. Charmetlan	Charmetlan.
	7. Xalisco	Xalisco.
II. MEXICO.	1. Mexico	} MEXICO, W. lon. 100-5. N. lat. 19-54.
	2. Mechoacan	
	3. Panuco	} Acapulco.
	4. Tlascala	
	5. Guaxaca	Mechoacan.
	6. Tobasco	Tampico.
	7. Jucatan	Tlascala.
	8. Chiapa	Vera Cruz.
	9. Soconusco.	Guaxaca.
		Tobasco.
		Campeachy.
		Chiapa.
		Soconusco.

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Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
III. GUATIMALA.	1. Verapaz	Verapaz.
	2. Guatimala	Guatimala*.
	3. Honduras	Valladolid.
	4. Nicaragua	Leon.
	5. Costa Rica	Nicoya.
	6. Veragua	Santa Fe.

BAYS.] On the north sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

CAVES.] These are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Corducedo, cape Catoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Santo, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Pruceos, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

WINDS.] In the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade-winds prevail every where at a distance from land, within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South-Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. Monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot, and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, is marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons; it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the western side the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain, were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages,

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and coconuts are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that here are more sugar mills than in any other part of Spanish America. Cedar trees, and logwood flourish much about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras. The Maho tree also which hath a bark with such fibres, as they twist and make ropes of. They have also a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea coasts.

But what is considered as the chief glory of the country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all sub-

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

stances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said. Those who have enquired most into this subject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver.

The other articles next in importance to gold and silver are the cochineal and cocoa. After much dispute concerning the nature of the former, it seems at last agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dying all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity to answer the purposes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such abundance as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } We shall place these heads under one point of view,
GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. } because the reader will soon be sensible they are very nearly connected. We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves as entitled to every high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which make the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not at all distinguished for their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the gross slavery they endure as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which

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his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For, as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to the ecclesiastics, in any part of the world. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church should enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more surprising that it has not one half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the gulf of Mexico, or North-Sea; with the East Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea; and with South-America, by the same port. These two sea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they were applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ships, annually arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havanna, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America, and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships, for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods, consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities to be laid out in the purchase of the galleons cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, to the Spanish inhabitants of

the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent into Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400	between { 60 and 82 west longitude.	} 700,000
Breadth 700	{ the equator, and 12 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic ocean), on the North; by the same sea and Surinam, on the East; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The north division contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The south division contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan

RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Isthmus, or neck of land, is only 60 miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Triest, the bay of Guaria, the bay of Curiaço, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North-Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape

de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual at Carthagea; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it, he finds his body all swelled, and racked with the severest tortures. The beasts, from instinct alone, avoid it. The Habella de Carthagea is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines have been since opened; and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts; it is therefore unnecessary to repeat them. Among these peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth, or, as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time, so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgusting howling, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter, and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, there is another species of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, } AND CHIEF TOWNS. We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed, therefore, with regard to this country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the Quarterones, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, who, which is very remarkable, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes, and besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes however devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800 }	between {	the equator and 25 south latitude.	970,000
Breadth 600 }		60 and 81 west longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordeleirias des Andes, East; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific

Ocean, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The North division	{ Quito —	{ Quito Payta
The Middle division	{ Lima, or Los Reyes	{ LIMA, 76-49. W. lon. 12-11 S. lat. Cusco, and Callao
The South division	{ Los Charcos —	{ Potosi Porco.

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SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whose waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are some waters, which, in their course, turn whatever they touch or pass over, into stone; and here are fountains of liquid matter called Coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by the seamen for the same purpose.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one side the South-Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun; but what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast, Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND } MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. } There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence, for now having gone so deep, it is not so easily brought up, contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness than for the animals on which it grows; these they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The Lama has a small head, in some measure resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the Lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is smaller and swifter than the Lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar stones, regarded as a specific against poisons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous part of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds: the tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, resembling the almond. But it is only the bark, which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders, to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of South America which produces quicksilver; an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of

glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire: its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of light materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of the city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts, is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port-town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself and was saved.

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has long been on the decline. But it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing: baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous

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for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND } It would be in vain to pretend saying any thing
GOVERNMENT. } decisive with regard to the number of inhabitants of
Peru. The Spaniards themselves are remarkably silent on this head. It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is agreed on by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true-born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents; and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1200 } Breadth 500 }	between { 25 and 45 south latitude. 65 and 85 west longitude. }	206,000

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
On the west side of the Andes	{ Chili Proper — — }	{ St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34. Baldivia Imperial
On the east side of the Andes	{ Cuyo, or Cutio — — }	{ St. John de Frontieræ

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific Ocean on the west. The principal rivers are, the Salado, or Salt River, Guafco, Caquimbo, Bohio, and the Baldivia, scarcely navigable but at their mouths, and fall into the Pacific Ocean.

The principal bays, or harbours, are, Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariso, Iata, Concepcion, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of Nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold almost in every river, supposed to be washed down from the hills.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South-Seas; hides, tallow, and salted provisions; and receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500 } Breadth 1000 }	between { 12 and 37 south latitude. 50 and 75 west longitude. }	1,000,000.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Amazonia, on the North; by Brasil, East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by Peru and Chili, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
East division contains	{ Paraguay — — — }	{ Assumption
	{ Parana — — — }	{ St. Anne
	{ Guaira — — — }	{ Ciudad Real
	{ Uragua — — — }	{ Los Royes
South division —	{ Tucuman — — — }	{ St. Jago
	{ Rio de la Plata — — — }	{ BUENOS AYRES, W. lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which Caracoroës, is 100 miles long.

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RIVERS.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uruguay, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a beast, chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata in 1515; and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brasil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America; two, or at most three, register ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose; in such parts of Brasil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and of which they have endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions were owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families,

whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it has brought on so much envy and jealousy, to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to increase their number to the degree requisite for a well-ordered and potent society; and it is said that above 340,000 families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: that the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture, they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive for forming these missions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Santo Sacrament, to make the Uragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we were informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between 19 and 23 degrees north lat. and between 74 and 87 degrees west lon. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of

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any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastich, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich: That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st degrees north lat. and the 67th and 74th of west lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least one million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-west parts, which are in possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, mestizos, and negroes.

The French Towns are, Cape St. François, the capital, which is neither walled nor palisaded in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above mentioned places are not less in value than 1,200,000*l*. They likewise carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spanish dollars.

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PORTO-RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees west lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthful in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 degrees west lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main; from which it is separated by the straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situate in 64 degrees west lon. and 11-30 north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees west lon. and 33 south lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruizers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brasil. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goat's skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of those papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints, which might give rise to his own celebrated performance.

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PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

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The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, the King's, or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2500 } Breadth 700 }	between { the equator and 35 south latitude. 35 and 60 west longitude. }	940,000

BOUNDARIES. **B**OUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the same ocean, on the East; by the mouth of the river Plata, South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the West.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
North division contains the captainships of	Para — — — —	Para or Belim.
	Marignan — — — —	St. Lewis
	Siara — — — —	Siara
	Petagues — — — —	St. Luc.
	Rio Grande — — — —	Tignares.
	Payraba — — — —	Payraba.
	Tamara — — — —	Tamara.
Middle division contains the captainships of	Pernambuco — — — —	Olinda.
	Serigippe — — — —	Serigippe.
	Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints } Ilheos — — — —	St. Salvador.
	Porto Seguro — — — —	Paya
	Spirito Sancto — — — —	Porto Seguro.
Southern division contains the captainships of	Rio Janeiro — — — —	Spirito Sancto.
	St. Vincent — — — —	St. Sebastian.
	Del Rey — — — —	St. Vincent.
		St. Salvador.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.

The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Pernambuco, All-Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS.

The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, re-

freshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interperfed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from which issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaiba, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtains aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper-end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brasil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon an high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil-fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000*l*. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they consist of woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany: the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brasils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. Their export of sugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the American colonies. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than 20,000 are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese had been long in possession of Brasil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds, which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish *flota* and galeons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony, and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498, but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which instantly decides the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and not satisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, and flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships or provinces; and would have subdued the whole co-

lony, had not their career been stopt by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacramento; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions and claims of the French before the war of 1756, as appears by their maps, consisted of almost the whole continent of North America; which vast country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the British province of that name), and in which they included a great part of the provinces of New-York, New-England, and Nova-Scotia. The southern province they called Louisiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This distribution, and the military disposition which the French made to support it, formed the principal cause of the war between Great Britain and that nation, in the year 1756, the issue of which is well known to all the world. For while the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the most sanguine hopes forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one wrong step in their politics lost them the whole; their imaginary empire, which existed only on the face of their maps, vanished like smoke. They over-rated their strength, and by commencing hostilities many years too soon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain all that fine country of Louisiana eastward of the Mississippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep possession of the western banks of that river, and the small town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reasons unknown to the public.

The French therefore, from being one of the greatest European powers in that quarter, and to the American colonies a very dangerous neighbour and rival, have now lost all footing in North America; but on the southern continent they have still a settlement which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

IT is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 56th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, East; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, West. The chief town is Caen.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

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FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are sensible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading towns and cities in France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance of trade, for raising the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for supporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent, of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the instructions of their constituents. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body, the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies, is a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they have sailed: how justice was administered to them? what charges they were liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as possible, and that the governor may have less temptation to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his salary is paid by the crown: he has no perquisites, and is strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands or on the continent; or any interest whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the house he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the soldiers paid, out of the same funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raised, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the West India islands, or at its import into France, are next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all.

Their other regulations, respecting the judge of the admiralty, law-suits, recovery of debts, lenity to such as have suffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad seasons, the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, lastly, the management of negroes, cannot be sufficiently admired; and would, doubtless, be of great

use, were some of them introduced into our sugar islands, where proper regulations in many respects seem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola, or St Domingo, as the most important and valuable of all their foreign settlements, and which they possess though the indolence of the Spaniards on that island, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French have the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of north lat. and in 61 degrees west lon lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as many in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who in vain often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 degrees north lat. and in 62 west lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as many south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.] This island is situated 11 degrees odd minutes, north lat. 320 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes, that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who

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defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain; but in June 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESSEADA, } Are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood
AND MARIGALANTE, } of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take possession of these islands, which would seem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the English, and as frequently given back to the French; who have often experienced the generosity of the British court. St Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

The small islands of ST. PIERRE and MIQUELON, situated near Newfoundland, belonging to France, have been already mentioned with that island.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brasil in the manner we have seen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish Main.

Dutch Guiana, is situated between five and seven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Orinoco, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low, and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars they have been engaged in, with their fugitive negroes, whom they have treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramacca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and making frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations, revenge themselves upon their old oppressors. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dying drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither, horses, live cattle, and provisions; and take home a large quantity of molasses.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Issequibo on the Spanish Main, which surrendered to the English in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West India islands united. But the report was either not

believed or slighted, for the colonies were left defenceless, and soon were retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana, are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people, has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either Whites, Indians, or Negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. There are so great a number of birds, of various species and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, and which form one of its principal inconveniencies. A snake was killed some years since, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, Esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place, near the middle, was three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana, is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair; and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS. } **SITUATED** in $17^{\circ} 29'$ N. lat. $63^{\circ} 10'$ W. lon. and three leagues
OR EUSTATIA. } north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea, like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it to turn to very good account; and it is said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney was sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which, being incapable of any defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation used to be characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the revolted colonies with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU. } Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature: for the island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour

one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous ware-houses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicocs of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers shops, and every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000*l.* but in time of war, the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West Indies: it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North America, or exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West India company alone: at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatius, hardly deserve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney, and Genl.

ral Vaughan, at the time when Eustatius surrendered to the arms of Great Britain, but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in 64 degrees west lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West India Company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the Company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and other of the West India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

These two nations, the Dutch and Danes, hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, and as the share of the Dutch is worth to them at least 600,000 l. a year, what must we think of our extensive and valuable possessions? what attention do they not deserve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

"There seems to be a remarkable providence (says an ingenious and polite writer) in casting the parts, if I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a soft climate to indulge his love of ease, and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his pride demands, but which his laziness would refuse him.

"The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home, and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful, though a less ostentatious manner.

"The English, of a reasoning disposition, thoughtful and cool, and men of business rather than of great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, and sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own fashion.

"The French, active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and though changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are, notwithstanding, tractable, and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses. These people have a country (when Canada was in their possession) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by struggling

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with them, and where their obedience to a wise government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned respecting the French colonies in America) serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

"The Dutch have a rock or two, on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence (which are their virtues), and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles."

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by the late discoveries of the Russians, and still more by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important: and of these discoveries we shall therefore here give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS consists of several groups of islands, which are situated between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western coast of the continent of America*. Mr. Muller divides these islands into four principal groups, the two first of which are styled the Aleutian islands. The first group, which is called by some of the islanders Sasignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Island. 2. Copper Island. 3. Otma. 4. Samyra, or Shemiya. 5. Anakta. The second group is called Khao, and comprizes eight islands, viz. 1. Immak, 2. Kiska, 3. Tchetchia, 4. Ava, 5. Kavia, 6. Tschangulak, 7. Ulagama, 8. Amtschidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreanoffski Ostrova: sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names; 1. Amatinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotsha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illak, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has also a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketshuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Goreloi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends sixteen islands; which are called by the Russians *Lyssie Osirova*, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tschigama; 3. Tschegula; 4. Uniftra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alashka; 12. Uniuga; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo-Leiffume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are, in general, of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon roots which grow wild, and sea-animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea-otters.

* Mr. Coxe observes, that, "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea, which lies between Kamtschatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown: but when it was discovered, that the islands in that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by these individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the present empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expence, by persons of abilities and learning, in consequence of which considerable discoveries have been made.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore-part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a skreen, adorned with the jaw bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing-parties they use a much more shewy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea-animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their viands, they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea-side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train-oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide, the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of Cannibals, it appears that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet, (belonging to the East India company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by Captain Wilson, who commanded the Packet, it appears that they are situate between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of East longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

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The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut, dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a Bone on their arm.

The idea of these islanders as communicated by the published account of Captain Wilson, is that of a people, who, tho' totally ignorant of the Arts and Sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence, that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring, and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart!"

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

ARE five in number, first discovered by Quiros in 1595, and their situation better ascertained by captain Cooke in 1774. St. Dominica is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as at the Society Isles.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree

* The Dolphin was sent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expense of the British government, in August 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitson Island*, it being discovered on Whitson-eve. Its latitude is $19^{\circ} 26' S$ and its longitude, $157^{\circ} 56' W$. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude $19^{\circ} 18' S$ latitude $158^{\circ} 4' W$. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Front Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cambrian Island*, *Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Onaburg Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders' Island*; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768, and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having passed through the strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Masafuero, discovered, on the 2d of July 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude $25^{\circ} 2' S$ longitude $133^{\circ} 21' W$, and about a thousand leagues to the eastward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the *Bishop of Osnaburg's Island*. The next day, he discovered two other small islands, which he called the *Duke of Gloucester's Islands*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Islands*, and also three others, which he named

53 minutes, south latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 minutes, and the 149th degree 39 minutes, west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April 1769. That commander was accompanied by Mr. now Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander; and those gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island. He again visited it in 1773 and 1777.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous: and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole Island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome, and very amorous, and indeed generally somewhat licentious. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon these they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running-water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There were no tame animals on the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry, and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish, and by the kindness of the English and the Spaniards they have now bulls and cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, and turkeys, and also cats.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in

Cook's Island, Simpson's Island, and Carteret's Island. On the 14th of the same month, he discovered *St. Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in latitude 4° 50' S. and the next day *Winchelsea's Island*, which is distant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E.

He afterwards discovered several other islands, and then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

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various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work: their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one Supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities: they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations, under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations. Otaheite is said to be able to send out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 fighting men.

Eimeo, Mataia or Osnaburgh Island, and Tethuroa are considered as islands dependent on Otaheite; the customs of the inhabitants of the two former nearly agreeing with the Otaheitan.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called in honour of the Royal Society, which were discovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUAHEINE, ULITKA, OTAHA,

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved, by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some part of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam, or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observation. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the Society, dated February 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty his pleasure, that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the Society should think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and seventy tons was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long assistant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Hallings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whether they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 16th of August 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon island, Two Groups, Bird island, and Chain island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their stay at that island, they had an opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the

Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oteroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November, he discovered a chain of islands, which he called *Barrier Islands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in order to make farther discoveries in the southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose; the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July 1771, and on the 29th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a sound, on the 16th of May following. In August, they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Harvey's island. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of the month, the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south; longitude 106 degrees 53 minutes west. He then proceeded to Ender Island, where he arrived in March 1774, and did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's Islands, and again receded for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 2d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August, he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were discovered by him. After leav-

and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout, than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they said, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, coconuts, yams, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otaba is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that, in the narrowest part, is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaba lies Bolabola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks, and several small islands, all which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the westward of Bolabola, containing six in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands. Ta-booyamano, or Saunders's Island, may be here mentioned also, being subject to Huaheine.

O H E T E R O A.

THIS island is situated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. south, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty, and well made, but are rather browner than those of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa-wood, which is very hard, and some of them are near twenty feet long.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE islands were so named by captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Jansen Tafman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously

ing these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees six minutes south, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the uttermost or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 33 or 55, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Table*, as being the nearest land to that pole, which has yet been discovered. In February, he discovered *Sandwich Land*, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England,

where he arrived on the 30th July 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the *Adventure*, a year before, having proceeded home round the cape of Good Hope, without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the *Resolution*, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for the possibility of there being a southern continent, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of an hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north, to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

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explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw he named New Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The first is the largest, and extends about 21 miles from east to west, and about 13 from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit-trees on each side, which provide shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The chief islands are Annamooka, Tangataboo (the residence of the sovereign and the chiefs), Lefooga, and Eooa. Lefooga is about 7 miles long and in some places not above two or three broad. It is in many respects superior to Annamooka. The plantations are both more numerous and more extensive; and inclosed by fences which, running parallel to each other, form fine spacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniences have been carried to the greatest perfection. They are, in general, highly cultivated, and well-stocked with the several roots and fruits which these islands produce, and captain Cook endeavoured to add to their number by planting Indian corn, and the seeds of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

Eooa, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles; which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents us with an extensive prospect, where groves of trees are only interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder, and all the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of the island. From this place they had a view of almost the whole island, which consisted of beautiful meadows of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. 'While I was surveying this delightful prospect,' says captain Cook, 'I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity, that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity. The next morning,' says our benevolent commander, 'I planted a pine-apple, and sowed the seeds of melons, and other vegetables, in Taofa's plantation. I had indeed some encouragement to flatter myself that my endeavours of this kind also would not be fruitless; as I had this day a dish of turnips served up at my dinner, which was the produce of seeds I left here in my former voyage.'

We are informed that the bulk of the people of these islands are satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs have commonly several women, though it appeared as if one only was looked on as mistress of the family. Though female chastity was frail enough in some, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is seldom violated; as it does not appear that more than one instance of it was known to our voyagers; and in that, the man's life, who was the cause of it, paid the forfeit for his crime. Nor were those of the better sort, who were unmarried, more liberal of their favours; those who were, being obvious prostitutes by profession. When they are afflicted by any disorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off a joint of one of their little fingers; fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that, as a sort of sacrifices efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was supposed from some circumstances, that though they believe in a future state, they have no notion of future rewards or punishments for the things done here. They believe in a Supreme Being; but they believe also in a number of inferior ones; for

every island has its peculiar god, as every European nation has its peculiar saint. Captain Cook thinks he can pronounce that they do not worship any thing which is the work of their own hands, or any visible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the *Otooa*, as at Otaheite; but it is absolutely certain that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people use *human sacrifices*. The government, as far as our people could learn, appears to approach nearly to the feudal system, formerly established all over Europe. When any person of consequence dies, his body is washed and decorated by some woman, or women, who are appointed on the occasion; and these women are not, by their customs, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterwards; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proscribed, is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they had washed. Their great men are fond of a singular piece of luxury; which is to have women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they go to sleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake; in which case they redouble their drumming until they are again fast asleep. These are some of the most remarkable opinions, customs, laws, and ceremonies observed at the Friendly Islands, and which we have endeavoured to collect into one point of view, for the information of our more inquisitive readers.

N E W Z E A L A N D.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished, in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent: but it is now known, from the late discoveries of Captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks, and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants would flourish here, in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those of England, and the summers not hotter, though more equally warm; so that it is imagined that if this country were settled by people from Europe, they would with moderate industry, be soon supplied, not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by the naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shewn themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the souls of such as are killed in battle, and their flesh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the souls of those who die a natural death, or whose bodies are preserved from such ignominious treatment, ascend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of disposing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more of their slaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the sea. They have no such things as *morais*, or other places of public worship; nor do they ever assemble together with this view: but they have priests who

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alone address the Deity in prayer for the prosperity of their temporal affairs, such as an enterprise against a hostile tribe, a fishing party, or the like. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by Capt. Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named *Tierra del Espiritu Santo*. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and Capt. Cooke's voyage in the *Endeavour*, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis incognita*. But when Capt. Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the *Resolution*, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 169 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. *Tierra del Espiritu Santo*, *Mallicolla*, *St. Bartholomew*, *Isle of Lepers*, *Aurora*, *Whitsuntide*, *Ambrym*, *Immer*, *Apee*, *Three Hills*, *Sandwich*, *Montagu*, *Hinchinbrook*, *Shepherd*, *Eorromanga*, *Ironnan*, *Annatom*, and *Tanna*.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies *NEW CALEDONIA*, a very large island, first discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands called the *Islands of Pines*, and *Botany Island*.

NEW HOLLAND.

THIS country is of a much larger extent than any other that does not bear the name of a continent, it extending from the eleventh to the thirty-eighth degree of south latitude; and the length of the east and north-east coast, along which Capt. Cook sailed, reduced to a straight line, is no less than twenty-seven degrees, which amount to near two thousand miles. The country is rather barren than fertile; yet in many places the rising grounds are chequered by woods and lawns; and in many places the plains and vallies are covered with herbage. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, are naked savages, of a middle stature, extremely active, and their skins of a chocolate colour, but their features are not disagreeable. Their food is chiefly fish, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the flesh of a tingular quadruped called the Kangaroo. Their weapons are spears or lances of different kinds, which they throw with great force and dexterity. They also use shields or targets of an oblong form, made of the bark of a tree. Great Britain has formed an intention of establishing a Colony at Botany Bay, on the East Coast of this country, having sent a large number of convicts there in the summer of 1787, under the government of Captain Philips.

NEW GUINEA, till the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Capt. Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east, from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa-

nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South-sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful profusions. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side the straits.

The north of New Guinea, is **NEW BRITAIN**, which is situated in the 4th degree of south latitude, and 152 deg. 19 min. east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent till Capt. Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, 1767, found that it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-east to the south-east, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black, and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of New Ireland a cluster of islands was seen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named **NEW HANOVER**; but the rest of the cluster received the name of the **ADMIRALTY ISLANDS**.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by Capt. Cook and Capt. Clerke, in the *Resolution* and *Discovery*, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland: in this course they discovered two islands, which Capt. Cook called Prince Edward's isles. The largest about 15 leagues in circuit is in lat. 46-53 south, lon. 37-46: the other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. 46-40 and long. 38-8, E. both barren and almost covered with snow. From thence to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich isles, which are twelve in number, and are situated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. N. latitude. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout and well-made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. O'why'hee is in circumference about 300 English miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled; for their names we refer to our map. The natives are described as of a mild and friendly temper and carriage, and in hospitality to strangers not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly Isles. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north and lon. 235 deg. 36 min. east, they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east.

Capt. Cook afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situated on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive; that part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and lon. 233 deg. 28 min. east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north.

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The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalafschka, and after their departure from thence still continued to trace the coast. They arrived on the 20th of August 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 57 min. lon. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the North; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, Capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of sudden resentment and fear, rather than from a bad disposition, on the island of O'why'hee, the largest of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February 1779: and his death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of Capt. Cook, the command devolved on Capt. Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article, without inserting the following character of Capt. Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator and commander.

Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man, than geography has done from those of Capt. Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand: discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the Eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage, he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia; and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the Southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered, to the North of the Equinoctial Line, the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation, than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Western coast of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° North, containing an extent of 3,500 miles, ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the

Pacific ocean, either by an Eastern or a Western course. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese Archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator, his services were not perhaps less splendid, certainly not less important and meritorious. The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new era in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages, among the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Those who are conversant in naval history need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been sought, through the medium of long voyages at sea, have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprizes. It was reserved for Capt. Cook to shew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree.

Having pointed out the numerous and important advantages which have arisen, and may arise from these voyages, both to the discoverers and discovered; the learned editor of the last voyage, enquires into the origin of the inhabitants who people this myriad of islands that are scattered over the great Pacific Ocean, and proves, by incontrovertible arguments, founded on the affinity of their language, manners, and customs, that they have all, originally, sprung from one common stock, and that stock is the Asiatic nation called *Malayans*. He also traces another of the large families of the earth, but whose lot has fallen in far less hospitable climes: we mean the Esquimaux; known hitherto only on the coasts of Greenland, Labrador, and Hudson's Bay; and who differ in several characteristic marks from the inland inhabitants of North America. Mr. Hearne, as our readers have already seen, traced this unhappy tribe farther back toward that part of the globe from which, no doubt, they had originally migrated; but it was reserved for Capt. Cook to shew that it is the same race which peoples the bays and islands on the West coast of North America, and that they are extended over a space of at least 1500 leagues from East to West, and from the latitude of 60°, to the latitude of 72° North.

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing discoveries of navigators, and the progress made in geography, since the first voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there still remain some countries, either absolutely unknown, or very superficially surveyed.

IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe the moderns are acquainted with the sea-coasts only, and these very imperfectly; the internal parts being little known to us, nor have we any satisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world.

IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and

these savages; low in stature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in skins, the hairy sides next their bodies. In these inhospitable regions, their nights, (as may be seen in the table of climates in the introduction) are from one to six months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia is so called from the great river of that name, which rises in Quito, in 76 degrees W. lon. and discharges itself into the Atlantic Ocean: it is computed, that with all its turnings and windings it runs near 5000 miles, and is generally two or three leagues broad: 500 leagues from the mouth it is 30 fathoms deep, and near 100 rivers fall into it on the North and the South. The country has never been thoroughly discovered, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brasil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese; but always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back; and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable country. Some of the inhabitants are certainly very tall, to 6 and 7 feet high, but others, and the greater part, are of a moderate and common stature. Here, in 52½ degrees south lat. we fall in with the straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the islands of Terra del Fuego on the south. These Straits extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world, but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same Strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these Straits, discovered in lat. 54½ another passage, since known by the name of the Straits La Maire, and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in these latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places, in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
A Bbeville	Picardy	France	Europe	50° 7' N.	1-54 E.
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire	Scotland	Europe	57-22 N.	1-40 W.
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Europe	60-27 N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco	Mexico	North	America	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Achem	Sumatra	East Indies	Asia	5-22 N.	95-29 E.
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	42-00 N.	26-30 E.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Ven.	Between	Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-05 S.	144-12 W.
Agde	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-18 N.	3-33 E.
Agen	Guienne	France	Europe	44-12 N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies	Atlantic ocean	Europe	49-56 N.	6-41 W.
Agra	Agra	East India	Asia	26-43 N.	76-49 E.
Air	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-30 N.	4-35 W.
Aix	Provence	France	Europe	43-31 N.	5-31 E.
Albany	New York	North	America	42-48 N.	73-30 W.
Alby	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-55 N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Asia	35-45 N.	37-25 E.
Alexandretta	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-35 N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31-11 N.	30-21 E.
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36-49 N.	2-17 E.
Amboyna	Amboyna Isle	East India	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambrym Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens	Picardy	France	Europe	49-53 N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-22 N.	4-49 E.
Amsterdam	Isle	Pacific ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43-37 N.	13-35 E.
Angra	Tercera Isle	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38-39 N.	27-07 W.
Antigua (St. John's Town)	Antigua Isle	Carib. sea	N. America	17-04 N.	62-04 W.
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-30 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-13 N.	04-27 E.
Apæ (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel	Dwina	Russia	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Archipelago	Islands of Greece	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.		
Ascension Isle		South Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 N.	14-27 W.
Astracan	Astracan	Russia	Asia	46-00 N.	51-00 E.
Athens	Achaia	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-57 E.
St. Augustin	Madagascar	South Indian sea	Africa	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
Ava	Ava	East India	Asia	20-20 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon	Provence	France	Europe	43-57 N.	04-53 E.
Aurora Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	15-08 S.	168-22 E.
B Agdad	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Balafore	Orixia	East India	Asia	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia	Chili	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Baltic sea	between	Germ. and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Barbuda Isle		Atlantic ocean	N. America	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
Basil	Basil	Switzerland	Europe	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
Basse Terre	Guadaloupe	Carib. sea	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Bassora	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia	Corfica	Italy	Europe	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
Batavia	Java	East India	Asia	06-10 S.	106-56 E.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Bath	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
Bay of Biscay	Coast of	France	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Bay of Bengal	Coast of	India	Asia		Indian Ocean.
Bayeux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-16 N.	00-47 E.
Bayonne	Gascony	France	Europe	43-29 N.	01-25 W.
Belfast	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen	Sumatra	East India	Asia	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Bender	Bassarabia	Turkey	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
BERLIN	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas	Bermuda Isles	Atlantic ocean	N. America	32-25 N.	63-23 W.
Bern	Bern	Switzerland	Europe	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	01-45 W.
Bilboa	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
Birmingham	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
Black, or Euxine sea	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia		
Bokhari a	Uzbek	Tartary	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Bolabola	Isle	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bologna	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bologne	Picardy	France	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bolscheriskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay	Bombay Isle	East India	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Boroughstonsness	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
Boston	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
Boston	New England	North	America	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Bourbon Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bordeaux	Guienne	France	Europe	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Bremen	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
BRESLAU	Silesia	Bohemia	Europe	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Brest	Bretany	France	Europe	48-22 N.	04-25 E.
Bridge Town	Barbadoes	Atlantic ocean	N. America	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
Bristol	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51-33 N.	02-40 W.
British sea	Between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Bruges	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-16 N.	03-05 E.
Brunswick	Low Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Brussels	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-51 N.	04-26 E.
Buda	Lower	Hungary	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Buenos Ayres	La Plata	Brasil	S. America	34-35 S.	58-26 E.
Bukarast	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
Burlington	Jersey	North	America	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
C ^A bello (Port)	Terra Firma	South	America	10-03 N.	67-27 W.
CACHAO	Tonquin	East India	Asia	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cadiz	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
Caen	Normandy	France	Europe	49-11 N.	0-16 W.
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
Cahors	Guienne	France	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 E.
Cairo	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
Calais	Picardy	France	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Calcutta	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Callao	Peru	South	America	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambay	Cambresis	Netherlands	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambeltown	Argyleshire	Scotland	Europe	55-40 N.	5-40 W.
Cambodia	Cambodia	East India	Asia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cambridge	Cambridgeshire	England	Europe	52-12 N.	0-09 E.
Cambridge	New	England	N. America	42-25 N.	71-05 W.
Canary N. E.	Canary Isles	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Point,					
Candia	Candia Island	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Candy	Ceylon	Indian ocean	Asia	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
Canfo Port	Nova Scotia	North	America	45-20 N.	60-50 W.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Canterbury	Kent	England	Europe	51-16 N.	1-15 E.
Canton	Canton	China	Asia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Cape Clear	Irish Sea	Ireland	Europe	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
Comorin	On this side the Ganges	East India	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
Finisterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42-51 N.	9-12 W.
Florida	East Florida	North	America	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
of Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffraria	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
Horn	Terra del Fuego Island	South	America	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
St. Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
Verd		Negroland	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28 W.
Cardigan	Cardiganthire	Wales	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38 W.
Carlescroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	56-20 N.	15-31 E.
Carlisle	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-47 N.	2-35 W.
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	9-00 E.
Carthage	Terra Firma	South	America	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthage	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37-37 N.	1-03 W.
Casan	Casan	Siberia	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caspian Sea	Russia	Tartary	Asia		
Cassel	Hesse Cassel	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catherine's Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegat	Between	Swed. & Den.	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Cavan	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne	Cayenne Isle	South	America	4-56 N.	53-10 W.
Cette	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-23 N.	3-47 E.
Ceuta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chalons	Burgundy	France	Europe	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagore	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
CHARLES TOWN	South Carolina	North	America	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
Charlton	Isle	Hudson's Bay	N. America	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres	Orleannois	France	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg	Normandy	France	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Chester	Cheshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	3-00 W.
Christmas Sound	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's Isle	Caribbean	Sea	N. America	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patro Di S. Petro.	Italy	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar	Alsace	France	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne	Elec. of Cologne	Germany	Europe	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
Constance	Suabia	Germany	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTINOPLE	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Isle	Denmark	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
CORK	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Cowes	Isle of Wight	England	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow	Little Poland	Poland	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster	Arch-duchy of Austria	Germany	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Cummin	Isle	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
Curassou	Curassou Isle	West India	America	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco	Peru	South	America	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
Acce	Bengal	East India	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic	Polish Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Dax	Gascony	France	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Delhi	Delhi	East India	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quart.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Derbent	Daghistan	Persia	Asia	41-41 N.	50-30 E.
Derby	Derbyshire	England	Europe	52-58 N.	1-30 W.
Derry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieppe	Normandy	France	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
Dieu	Guzerat	East India	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
Dijon	Burgundy	France	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
Dilbengen	Suabia	Germany	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
Dol	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-33 N.	1-41 W.
Dominique	Windward Islands	West India	America	15-18 N.	61-22 W.
Dover	Kent	England	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
DRESDEN	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
Dreux	Orleannois	France	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
DUBLIN	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
Dumbarton	Dumbartonshire	Scotland	Europe	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
Dumfries	Dumfrieshire	Scotland	Europe	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Durham	Durham	England	Europe	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
E Acowe Ifle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
E Easter Ifle	Pacific	Ocean	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Eastern Ocean	betw. the N. W. of	N. America and	N. E. of Asia	N. Pacific ocean.	
Edinburgh	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
Edystone	Eng. Channel	England	Europe	50-08 N.	4-19 W.
Elbing	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
Embsen	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Enatum Ifle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Encbrun	Dauphiné	France	Europe	44-34 N.	6-34 E.
English Channel	between	England & France	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Erramanga Ifle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum	Turcomania	Turkey	Asia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea	Coast of	Guinea	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Evreux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Eustatia Town	Carib. sea	West India	N. America	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Exeter	Devonshire.	England	Europe	50-44 N.	3-29 W.
F Alkirk	Sterling	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
F Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Na- ronka		Brasil	S. America	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara	Ferrarese	Italy	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town).	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Elorence	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
Fort St. David	Coromandel	East India	Asia	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
France (Ifle of)	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.	57-33 E.
Francfort on the Main	Franconia.	Germany	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frawenburg.	Polish	Prussia	Europe	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Ifle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneaux Ifle.	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
G A P	Dauphiné	France	Europe	44-33 N.	6-09 E.
G Geneva	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
GENOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.	8-30 E.
Genes	Savoy	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
St. George's Ifle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
St. George's Fort	Coromandel	East India	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
St. George's Town	Bermudas	Atlantic Ocean	N. America	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
Ghent	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Gibraltar	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
Glasgow	Lanarkshire	Scotland	Europe	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Gloucester	Gloucestershire	England	Europe	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Goa	Malabar	East India	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle	Indian	Ocean	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gombroon	Faristan	Persia	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Gomera Isle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope Town	Hottentots	Caffra	Africa	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottengen	Hanover	Germany	Europe	51-35 N.	9-58 E.
Granville	Normandy	France	Europe	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Grata	Stiria	Germany	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines	Fr. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Greenock	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Gryphiswald	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe	Caribbean	Sea	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Guam	Ladron Islands	East India	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia	Coast of	Sweden	Europe	Baltic Sea	
—of California	between	California and Mexico	N. America	Pacific Ocean.	
—of Finland	between	Sweden & Russia	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—of St. Laurence	Coast of	New Scotland	N. America	Atlantic Ocean.	
—of Mexico	Coast of	Mexico	N. America	Atlantic Ocean.	
—of Ormus	between	Persia and Arabia	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Persia	between	Persia and Arabia	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	
H Aeriem	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-20 N.	4-10 E.
Hague	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Hamburg	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53-34 N.	9-55 E.
Halifax	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX	Nova Scotia	North	America	44-40 N.	63-15 W.
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-32 N.	9-35 E.
Hastings	Suffex	England	Europe	50-52 N.	04-6 E.
Havannah	Cuba	Island	N. America	23-11 N.	82-13 W.
Havre de Grace	Normandy	France	Europe	49-29 N.	0-10 E.
La Hefse	D. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-25 N.	4-50 E.
St. Helena (Ja. Town)	South	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Hellefpont	Mediterranean and Black Sea	Europe and	Asia		
Hernofand	W. Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hereford	Herefordshire	England	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hervey's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Hoai-Nagham	Kian-Nan	China	Asia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
La Hogue Cape	Normandy	France	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogstraten	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
Huabine Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
Hudson's Bay	Coast of	Labrador	N. America	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Hull	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
J Akutskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Janeiro (Rio)		Brazil	S. America	22-54 S.	43-38 W.
Jaffay	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head	Java Isle	East India	Asia	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo	Japan Isle	East India	Asia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
Jerusalem	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	31-55 N.	35-25 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ammer Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-16 S.	169-51 E.
Indian Ocean		Coast of India	Asia		
Ingoldstadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
Inverness	Invernesshire	Scotland	Europe	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
St. John's Town	Antigua	Leeward Isles	N. America	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's Town	Newfoundland	North	America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joseph's	California	Mexico	N. America	23 03 N.	109-37 W.
Irish Sea between Great Britain and Ireland,		Europe, Atlantic Ocean.			
Irraname Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
Islamabad	Bengal	East India	Asia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Isle of Pines	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN	Irac Agem	Persia	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Isthmus of Suez joins Africa to Asia					
— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.					
— of Panama, joins North and South America.					
— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia.					
Ivica Isle	Mediterr. Sea	Italy	Europe	38-50 N.	1-40 E.
Judda	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthia	Siam	East India	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
K Amtschatka	Siberia	Russia	Asia	57-10 N.	163-00 E.
— Kedgere	Bengal	East India	Asia	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelfo	Roxboroughshire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.	02-12 W.
Kilmarnock	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.	04-30 W.
Kingfale	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-32 N.	08-20 W.
KINGSTON	Jamaica	West India	America	18-15 N.	76-38 W.
Kiow	Ukraine	Russia	Europe	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola	Lapland	Russia	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningsberg	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
L Aguna	Teneriffe	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Lahor	Lahor	East India	Asia	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
Lancaster	Lancashire	England	Europe	54-05 N.	02-55 E.
Landau	Alsace	France	Europe	49-11 N.	08-02 E.
Landieroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55-52 N.	12-51 E.
Lausanne	Canton of Vaud	Switzerland	Europe	46-31 N.	06-50 E.
Leeds	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-48 N.	01-29 W.
Leicester	Leicestershire	England	Europe	52-38 N.	01-03 W.
Leipfic	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
Leith	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	03-00 W.
Leper's Island	S. Pacific	Ocean	Asia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Letkard	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-26 N.	04-36 W.
Lesparre	Guienne	France	Europe	45-18 N.	00-52 W.
Levant sea	Coast of	Syria	Asia		
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-10 N.	04-32 E.
Liege	Bithupric of Liege	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.	05-40 E.
Lima	Peru	South	America	12-01 S.	76-44 W.
Limerick	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52-35 N.	08-48 W.
Limoges	Limoges	France	Europe	45-49 N.	01-20 E.
Lincoln	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	00-27 W.
Linlithgow	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55-56 N.	03-30 W.
Lintz	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-16 N.	13 57 E.
Lisbon	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38-42 N.	09-04 W.
Lisle	French Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.	03-09 E.
Litchfield	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52 43 N.	01-04 W.
Lizard Point	Cornwall	England	Europe	49-57 N.	05-10 W.
LONDON	Middlesex	England	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Meridian
Londonderry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	50-00 N.	07-40 W.
Loretto	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louisburgh	Cape Breton Isle	North	America	45-53 N.	59-48 W.
Louvain	Austrian Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-53 N.	04 49 E.
Louveau	Siam	East India	Asia	12 42 N.	100-56 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quart.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Lubeck	Holstein	Germany	Europe	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle	Windward Isles	West Indies	N. America	13-24 N.	60-46 W.
Lunden	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-35 N.	06-35 E.
Luxemburg	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Europe	49-37 N.	06-16 E.
Lyons	Lyons	France	Europe	45-45 N.	04-54 E.
M acao	Canton	China	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar	Celebes Isle	East India	Asia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira Funchal	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Madrafs	Coromandel	East India	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID	New Castile	Spain	Europe	40-25 N.	03-40 E.
Magdalena Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-25 S.	138-44 W.
Mahon Port	Minorca	Mediterr. sea	Europe	39-50 N.	03-53 E.
Majorca	Isle	Mediterr. sea	Europe	39-35 N.	02-34 E.
Malacca	Malacca	East India	Asia	02-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-01 N.	04-33 E.
Mallicola (Isle)	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-15 N.	167-44 E.
St. Maloes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-38 N.	01-53 W.
Malta Isle	Mediterranean	Sea	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla	Luconia Philip Isles	East India	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA	Mantua	Italy	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Maregalante Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	S. America	15-55 N.	61-06 W.
Marfeilles	Provence	France	Europe	43-17 N.	05-27 E.
St. Martha	St. Martha	Terra Firma	America	11-26 N.	73-59 W.
St. Martin's Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.
Martinico Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
St. Mary's Isle	Scilly Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-57 N.	06-38 W.
St. Mary's Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36-56 N.	25-04 W.
Maskelyne Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32 S.	168-04 E.
Mauritius	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Maurua Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.
Mayence	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-54 N.	08-25 E.
Mayo Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.
Meaux	Champagne	France	Europe	48-57 N.	02-57 E.
Mecca	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Medina	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	25-00 N.	39-53 E.
Mediterr. Sea	Between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34-30 N.	06-00 E.
MESSINA	Scilly Island	Italy	Europe	38-10 N.	15-40 E.
Mergui	Siam	East India	Asia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
Mexico	Mexico	North	America	19-54 N.	98-00 W.
Miateca Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-52 S.	01 W.
St. Michael's Isle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	37-47 N.	25-17 W.
Middleburg Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-20 S.	174-17 W.
MILAN	Milanese	Italy	Europe	45-25 N.	09-30 E.
Milford Haven	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51-45 N.	05-15 W.
Mocha	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA	Modena	Italy	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montreal	Canada	North	America	45-35 N.	73-11 W.
Montpelier	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-36 N.	03-37 E.
Montague Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montrose	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-34 N.	02-20 W.
Montferrat Isle	Caribbean Isles	West India	America	16-47 N.	62-12 W.
Morocco	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30-32 N.	06-10 W.
Moscow	Moscow	Russia	Europe	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munster	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	52-00 N.	07-10 E.
N amur	Namur	Netherlands	Europe	50-28 N.	04-49 E.
Nancy	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-41 N.	06-16 E.
Nangafachi	Japan	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	32-32 N.	128-51 E.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Nanking	Kiangnan	China	Asia	32 00 N.	118 30 E.
Nantes	Bretagne	France	Europe	47 13 N.	01 28 W.
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europe	40 50 N.	14 18 E.
Narva	Livonia	Russia	Europe	59 00 N.	27 35 E.
New York	New York	North America	America	40 40 N.	74 00 W.
Newcastle	Northumberland	England	Europe	55 03 N.	01 24 W.
Newport	Rhode Island	North America	America	41 35 N.	71 06 W.
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	43 41 N.	07 22 E.
St. Nicholas Mole	Hispaniola	West India	America	19 49 N.	73 24 W.
Nieuport	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 07 N.	02 50 E.
Nineveh	Curdistan	Turkey	Asia	36 00 N.	45 00 E.
Ningpo	Chekiang	China	Asia	29 57 N.	120 23 E.
Norfolk Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	29 01 S.	168 15 E.
Noriton	Pennsylvania	North America	America	40 09 N.	75 18 W.
North Cape	Wardhus	Lapland	Europe	71 10 N.	26 02 E.
Northampton	Northamptonshire	England	Europe	52 15 N.	00 55 W.
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 40 N.	01 25 E.
Nuremberg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 27 N.	11 12 E.
Nottingham	Nottinghamshire	England	Europe	53 00 N.	01 06 W.
Ochotskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	59 20 N.	143 17 E.
Oheavahoa Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09 40 S.	138 56 W.
Ohitahoo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09 55 S.	139 01 W.
Oleron	Saintonge	France	Europe	46 02 N.	01 20 W.
Olinde	Brasil	South America	America	08 13 S.	35 00 W.
Olmütz	Moravia	Bohemia	Europe	49 30 N.	16 45 E.
Olympia	Greece	Turkey	Europe	37 30 N.	22 00 E.
St. Omer's	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50 44 N.	03 19 E.
Onateayo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	09 58 S.	138 46 W.
Oporto	Duoro	Portugal	Europe	41 10 N.	08 22 W.
Oran	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36 30 N.	00 05 E.
Orenburg	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51 46 N.	55 14 E.
L'Orient, (Port)	Bretagne	France	Europe	47 45 N.	03 20 W.
Orleans	Orleanois	France	Europe	47 54 N.	01 59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana	North America	America	29 57 N.	89 53 W.
Ormus	Ormicos Isle	Persia	Asia	26 50 N.	57 00 E.
Orotava	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28 23 N.	16 19 W.
Orsk	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51 12 N.	58 37 E.
Ofuaburg-Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 52 S.	148 01 E.
Ostend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 13 N.	03 00 E.
Otaheite	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 29 S.	149 35 W.
Owhyee	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22 10 S.	199 00 E.
Oxford Observa- tory	Oxfordshire	England	Europe	51 45 N.	01 10 W.
Pacific or Orient- al Ocean	Between	Asia and America	America		
Padua	Paduano	Italy	Europe	45 22 N.	12 00 E.
Pailey	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55 48 N.	04 08 W.
PALERMO	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	38 30 N.	13 43 E.
Palliser's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15 38 S.	146 25 W.
Palma Isle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28 36 N.	17 45 W.
Palmerston's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	18 00 S.	162 52 W.
Palmyra	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33 00 N.	39 00 E.
Panama	Darien	Terra Firma	S. America	08 47 N.	80 16 W.
Paoom Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16 30 S.	168 33 E.
Paris (Observ.)	Isle of France	France	Europe	48 50 N.	2 25 E.
Parma	Parmesan	Italy	Europe	44 45 N.	10 51 E.
Patna	Bengal	East India	Asia	25 45 N.	83 03 E.
Patritsfjord	Iceland	N. Atlan. Ocean	Europe	65 35 N.	14 05 W.
Pau	Bearn	France	Europe	43 15 N.	0 04 W.
St. Paul's Isle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	37 51 S.	77 51 E.
Pegu	Pegu	East India	Asia	17 00 N.	97 00 E.
Peking	Petchi-li	China	Asia	39 54 N.	116 29 E.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quart.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Pelew Islands	North	Pacific Ocean	Asia	7-00 N.	135-00 E.
Pembroke	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50 W.
PENSACOLA	West Florida	North	America	30-22 N.	87-20 W.
Penzance	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08 N.	6-00 W.
Perigueux	Guienne	France	Europe	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perinaldi	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-22 N.	3-12 W.
Perth-amboy	New York	North	America	40-30 N.	74-20 W.
Persepolis	Irac Agem	Perfia	Asia	30-30 N.	54-00 E.
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico	W. India	N. America	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
St. Peter's Isle	North	Atlantic Ocean	America	46-46 N.	56-12 W.
PETERSBURG	Ingria	Russia	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
Petropawlofskoi	Kamtchatka	Russia	Asia	53-01 N.	158-40 E.
Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	North	America	39-56 N.	75-09 W.
St. Philip's Fort	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickersgill Isle	South	Atlantic Ocean	America	54-42 S.	36-53 W.
Pico	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-28 N.	28-21 W.
Pines, Isle of	N. Caledonia	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia	Newfoundl. Isle	North	America	47-26 N.	55-00 W.
Plymouth	Devonshire	England	Europe	50-22 N.	4-10 W.
Plymouth	New England	North	America	41-48 N.	70-25 W.
Pollingen	Swabia	Germany	Europe	47-48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry	Coromandel	East India	Asia	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi	Lapland	Russia	Europe	67-06 N.	36-28 E.
Porto Bello	Terra Firma	South	America	9-33 N.	79-45 W.
Port Santo Isle	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-58 N.	16-20 W.
Port Royal	Jamaica	West India	America	18-00 N.	76-40 W.
Port Royal	Martinico	West India	America	14-35 N.	61-04 W.
Portland Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Isle	North	Atlantic ocean	Europe	63-22 N.	18-49 W.
Portsmouth Town	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-47 N.	01-01 W.
— Academy	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-48 N.	1-01 W.
Portsmouth	New England	North	America	43-10 N.	70-20 W.
Potosi	Peru	South	America	21-00 S.	77-00 W.
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Preiburg	Upper	Hungary	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30 W.
Preston	Lancashire	England	Europe	53-45 N.	2-50 W.
Prince of Wales Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Providence	New England	North	America	41-50 N.	71-21 W.
Pulo Candor Isle	Indian Ocean	East India	Asia	8-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Isle	Gulf of Siam	East India	Asia	3-00 N.	104-30 E.
Pylestaart Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-23 S.	175-36 W.
Q Uebec	Canada	North	America	46-55 N.	69-48 W.
Queen	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
Charlotte's Isles					
St. Quintin	Picardy	France	Europe	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito	Peru	South	America	0-13 S.	77-50 W.
R Agua	Dalmatia	Venice	Europe	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ramhead	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ratisbon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Re Isle	Annis	France	Europe	46-14 N.	1-29 W.
Recif	Brasil	South	America	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Resolution Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rheims	Champagne	France	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes	Rhode Island	Levant sta	Asia	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
Riga	Livonia	Russia	Europe	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rennes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Rochelle	Annis	France	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort	Saintonge	France	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Rock of Lisbon	Mouth of Tagus River	Portugal	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodes	Guienne	France	Europe	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	20-16 N.	174-25 W.
Rouen	Normandy	France	Europe	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
Saba Isle	Carib. sea	West India	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan	Silesia	Germany	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
St. Augustin	East Florida	North	America	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
St. Domingo	Carib. sea	West India	America	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
St. George's Channel	Between	England and Ireland	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
St. Jago	Chili	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
St. Salvador	Brasil	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Salisbury	Wiltshire	England	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Sall Isle	North	Atlantic ocean	Africa	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles	North	Atlantic ocean	Africa	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana	Hispaniola	West India	America	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand	Ubec	Tartary	Asia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
Sandwich Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Santa Fee	New Mexico	North	America	36-00 N.	104-00 W.
Savage Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
Savannah	Georgia	North	America	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Saunders's Isle	South Georgia	S. Atlantic Ocean	S. America	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Schwezingen	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Scone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Sea of Afop	Little Tartary	Europe and Asia			
— Marmora	Turkey in	Europe and Asia			
— Ochotsk	Between	Siberia, and Kamtschatka, Asia,			
— Yellow	Between Eastern	Tartary, China and Corea,			
Sedan	Champagne	France	Europe	49-42 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Seville	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-58 S.	166-47 E.
Shields (South)	Durham	England	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Siam	Siam	East India	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Si-gham-fu	Chensi	China	Asia	34-16 N.	108-48 E.
Sisteron	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01 E.
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Sombavera Isles	Carib. Sea	West India	N. America	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soolo Isle	Philip. Isles	East India	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Spaw	Leige	Germany	Europe	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Stafford	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Sterling	Sterlingshire	Scotland	Europe	56-10 N.	3-50 W.
Straits of Babelmandel,	between Africa and Asia,	Red Sea.			
— of Dover,	between England and France,	English Channel.			
— of Gibraltar,	between Europe and Africa,	Mediterranean Sea.			
— of Malacca,	between Malacca and Sumatra,	Asia, Indian Ocean.			
— of Magellan,	between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia,	South America.			
— of La Maire,	in Patagonia, South America,	Atlantic and Pacific Ocean.			
— of Ormus,	between Persia and Arabia,	Perlian Gulf.			
— of Sunda,	between Sumatra and Java,	Indian Ocean, Asia.			
— of Waigats,	between Nova Zembla and Russia,	Asia.			

<i>Names of Pla</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quart.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Saalfund	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-21 N.	13-22 E.
Saiburgh	Allace	France	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Stradinnest	Iceland	N. Atlantic Ocean	Europe	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sultu	Lorrain	France	Europe	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat	Guzurat	East India	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Surinam	Surinam	South.	America	6-00 N.	55-30 W.
Syracuse	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	36-58 N.	15-05 E.
T ABLE Island	New Hebrides	South Pacific	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanjour	Tanjour	East India	Asia	11-27 N.	79-07 E.
Tanna	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Taoukna Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Tauris	Aderbeitzan	Persia	Asia	38-20 N.	46-30 E.
Teflis	Georgia	Persia	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Temontengia	Soloo	East India	Asia	5-57 N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tercera	Azores	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38-45 N.	27-01 W.
Tetuan	Fex	Barbary	Africa	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
St. Thomas's Isle	Virgin Isles	West India	America	18-21 N.	64-46 W.
Thorn	Regal Prussia	Poland	Europe	52-56 N.	19-00 W.
Timor, S. W. Point		East India	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland S. Point		East India	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Tobolski	Siberia	Russia	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo	New Castile	Spain	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tonisk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle.	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Tornea	Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Toulon	Provence	France	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Trapezond	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent	Trent	Germany	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Tripoli	Tripoli	Barbary	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli	Syria	Turkey	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Troy Ruins	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	39-30 N.	26-30 E.
Tunis	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyre	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Tyrnaw	Trentschin	Hungary	Europe	48-23 N.	17-38 E.
U Liatea	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Upfal	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-51 N.	17-47 E.
Uraniberg	Huen Isle	Denmark	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utrecht	Holland	Netherlands.	Europe	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice	Venice	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz	Mexico	North	America	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
Verona	Veronese	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Verfailles	Isle of France	France	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
V IEENNA (Obfer.)	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda	Virgin Isles.	West India	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
W Akefield	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Prince of Wales Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus	Norwegian Lapland	Lapland	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw	Masovia	Poland	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Westman Isles	North	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quart.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Whitfuntide	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15 44 S.	168 35 E.
Williamsburg	Virginia	North	America	37 12 N.	76 48 W.
Willis's Isles	South Georgia	Atlantic Ocean	America	54 00 S.	38 24 W.
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51 06 N.	1 15 W.
Wilna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54 41 N.	25 32 E.
Wittenburg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 49 N.	12 46 E.
Wologda	Wologda	Russia	Europe	59 19 N.	41 50 E.
Worcester	Worcestershire	England	Europe	52 09 N.	1 55 W.
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49 38 N.	8 05 E.
Wostak		Russia	Europe	61 15 N.	
Wurtsburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 46 N.	10 18 E.
Yarmouth	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 45 N.	1 48 E.
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53 59 N.	1 01 W.
Yorkminster	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55 26 N.	70 03 W.
Greenwich Observ.	Kent, England, Europe,	51° 28' 40" N. 0° 5' 37" E. of St. Paul's London.			

MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;

The most CAPIOUS and AUTHENTIC that ever was published, of the present State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the WORLD.

Divided into Four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA:

Which are subdivided into fifty-five parts, containing the Names of the most Capital Places, the Species whereof are inserted, shewing how the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing against the Denomination of each foreign Piece, is the English intrinsic Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the Mint of the Tower of LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money, is understood an Effective Specie, representing in itself the Value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made Use of in keeping Accompts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by several other Pieces, as a POUND STERLING, &c.

All Fractions in the Value English are Parts of a PENNY.

= This Mark signifies, is, make, or equal to.

Note, For all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

NORTHERN PARTS OF EUROPE.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.

Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.	£.	s.	d.
A Farthing	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings = a Halfpenny	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence = a Penny	0	0	1
4 Pence = a Groat	0	0	4
6 Pence = a Half Shilling	0	0	6
12 Pence = a Shilling	0	1	0
5 Shillings = a Crown	0	5	0
20 Shillings = a * Pound Sterl.	1	0	0
21 Shillings = a Guinea	1	1	0

IRELAND.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

A Farthing	=	a Halfpenny	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	=	a Penny	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	=	a Penny	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Pence	=	a Half Shilling	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
12 Pence	=	a Shilling Irish	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
13 Pence	=	a Shilling	0	1	0
65 Pence	=	a Crown	0	5	0
20 Shillings	=	a * Pound Irish	0	18	$\frac{5}{4}$
22 Shillings	=	a Guinea	1	1	0

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Osend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels &c.

	£.	s.	d.
* A Pening	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
4 Penings = an Urche	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
8 Penings = a Grote	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Grotes = a Petard	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
6 Petards = a Scalin	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
7 Petards = a Scalin	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
40 Grotes = a Florin	0	1	6
17½ Scalins = a Ducat	0	9	3
240 Grotes = a * Pound Flem.	0	9	0

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

• Pening	=	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$	
8 Penings	=	• a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin	0	0	3	$\frac{3}{4}$
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder	0	1	9	
2 Flor. 10 Stiv.	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder	0	5	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Flor. 3 Stiv.	=	a Silver Ducatt.	0	5	8	$\frac{1}{4}$
6 Guilders	=	• a Pound Flem.	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducatoon, another sort, called a Sovereign	1	7	0	

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

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NORTHERN PARTS OF EUROPE.

GERMANY.

HAMBURG, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
* A Tryling	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Trylings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
2 Sexlings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
12 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
16 Shillings	=	0	1	0
2 Marcs	=	0	3	0
3 Marcs	=	0	4	0
4 Marcs	=	0	5	0
120 Shillings	=	0	11	3

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.
Prague, Breslau, Proßburg, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Fening	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
3 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
4 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
62 Cruitzers	=	0	3	0
90 Cruitzers	=	0	4	0
2 Goulds	=	0	4	0
4 Goulds	=	0	9	4

HANOVER, Lüneburg, Zell, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
* A Fening	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
8 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
12 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
8 Grothen	=	0	1	2
16 Grothen	=	0	2	4
24 Grothen	=	0	3	6
32 Grothen	=	0	4	8
4 Goldens	=	0	9	2

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Fening	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
14 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Cruitzers	=	0	1	11
15 Batzen	=	0	2	4
90 Cruitzers	=	0	3	6
2 Florins	=	0	4	6
60 Batzen	=	0	9	4

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dresden, Leipzig, &c. Wismar, Kehl, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
* An Heller	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
8 Hellers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
6 Hellers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
16 Hellers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
12 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
16 Grothen	=	0	2	4
24 Grothen	=	0	3	6
32 Grothen	=	0	4	8
4 Goulds	=	0	9	4

FRANCONIA, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Dettingen, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Fening	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Fenings	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
3 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
15 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
60 Cruitzers	=	0	2	4
90 Cruitzers	=	0	3	6
2 Goulds	=	0	4	8
140 Cruitzers	=	0	9	4

BRANDENBURGH AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potsdam, &c. Stettin, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
* Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
9 Deniers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
18 Deniers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
3 Polchens	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 Grothen	=	0	0	9
30 Grothen	=	0	1	2
90 Grothen	=	0	3	6
108 Grothen	=	0	4	2
6 Florins	=	0	9	4

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzig, Königsberg, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Shellon	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Shelon	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
5 Grothen	=	0	0	2
3 Couftic	=	0	0	7
18 Grothen	=	0	0	8
30 Grothen	=	0	1	2
90 Grothen	=	0	3	6
8 Florins	=	0	4	6
5 Rix-dollars	=	0	17	6

COLOGN, Mainz, Trier, Liège, Munich, Munster, Paderborn, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Dute	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Dutes	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
2 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
8 Dutes	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
3 Stivers	=	0	0	1
4 Plaperts	=	0	0	8
10 Stivers	=	0	2	4
2 Guilders	=	0	4	8
4 Guilders	=	0	9	4

LIVONIA, Riga, Reval, Nerva, &c.

		L.	s.	d.
A Blacken	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
6 Blackens	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{8}$
9 Blackens	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
2 Grothen	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
6 Grothen	=	0	0	2
30 Grothen	=	0	1	2
90 Grothen	=	0	3	6
108 Grothen	=	0	4	2
64 Whitens	=	0	5	0

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

NORTHERN PARTS OF EUROPE.

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Dramsheim, &c.

		l.	s.	d.
A Skilling	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
6 Skillings	= a Duggen	0	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
16 Skillings	= a Mark	0	0	9
20 Skillings	= a Rix-mark	0	0	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
24 Skillings	= a Rix-ort	0	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Mares	= a Crown	0	3	0
6 Mares	= a Rix-dollar	0	4	6
11 Mares	= a Ducat	0	8	3
14 Mares	= a Hatt Ducat	0	10	6

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upsal &c. Thorn, &c.

A Runtick	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Runticks	= a Stiver	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
8 Runticks	= a Copper Marc	0	0	1
3 Copper Marcs	= a Silver Marc	0	0	4
4 Copper Marcs	= a Copper Dollar	0	0	6
9 Copper Marcs	= a Caroline	0	1	2
3 Copper Dollars	= a Silver Dollar	0	1	6
5 Silver Dollars	= a Rix-dollar	0	4	6
2 Rix-dollars	= a Ducat	0	9	4

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Peterburgh, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.

A Polufca	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Polufcas	= a Denufca	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Denufcas	= a Copec	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Copecs	= an Altin	0	0	1
10 Copecs	= a Grievener	0	0	5
25 Copecs	= a Polpotin	0	1	1
50 Copecs	= a Poltin	0	2	3
100 Copecs	= a Ruble	0	4	6
2 Rubles	= a Xervonitz	0	9	0

BASIL. Zurich, Zug, &c.

A Rap	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Rapen	= a Fening	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Fenings	= a Cruitzer	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Fenings	= a Sol	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
15 Fenings	= a Coarse Batzen	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
18 Fenings	= a Good Batzen	0	0	2
20 Sols	= a Livre	0	2	6
60 Cruitzers	= a Gulden	0	2	6
108 Cruitzers	= a Rix-dollar	0	4	6

ST. GALL. Appenzel, &c.

An Heller	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Hellers	= a Fening	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Fenings	= a Cruitzer	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Fenings	= a Sol	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Cruitzers	= a Coarse Batzen	0	0	2
5 Cruitzers	= a Good Batzen	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols	= a Livre	0	2	6
60 Cruitzers	= a Gould	0	2	6
102 Cruitzers	= a Rix-dollar	0	4	5

BERN, Lucerne, Neuchâtel, &c.

		l.	s.	d.
A Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Deniers	= a Cruitzer	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Cruitzers	= a Sol	0	0	1
4 Cruitzers	= a Plapert	0	0	1
5 Cruitzers	= a Gros	0	0	2
6 Cruitzers	= a Batzen	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols	= a Livre	0	2	6
75 Cruitzers	= a Gulden	0	2	6
135 Cruitzers	= a Crown	0	4	6

GENEVA. Pexay, Bonne, &c.

A Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Deniers	= a Denier current	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Deniers	= a Small Sol	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Den. current	= a Sol current	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Small Sols	= a Florin	0	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols current	= a Livre current	0	1	3
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ Florins	= a Patacon	0	3	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
15 $\frac{1}{2}$ Florins	= a Croifade	0	5	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
24 Florins	= a Ducat	0	9	0

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Lille, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

A Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Deniers	= a Sol	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
15 Deniers	= a Patard	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
15 Patards	= a Piette	0	0	9 $\frac{1}{16}$
20 Sols	= a Livre Tourn.	0	0	10
20 Patards	= a Florin	0	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
60 Sols	= an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ Livres	= a Ducat	0	9	3
24 Livres	= a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

Dunkirk, St. Omer, St. Quintin, &c.

A Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Deniers	= a Sol	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
15 Deniers	= a Patard	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
15 Sols	= a Piette	0	0	7 $\frac{1}{16}$
20 Sols	= a Livre Tourn.	0	0	10
3 Livres	= an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
24 Livres	= a Louis d'Or	1	0	0
24 Livres	= a Guinea	1	1	0
30 $\frac{1}{2}$ Livres	= a Moeda	1	7	0

Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A Denier	=	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Deniers	= a Liard	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Liards	= a Dardene	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
12 Deniers	= a Sol	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
20 Sols	= a Livre Tourn.	0	0	10
60 Sols	= an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
6 Livres	= an Ecu	0	5	0
10 Livres	= a Pirole	0	8	4
24 Livres	= a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

SOUTHERN PARTS OF EUROPE.

ITALY.
SICILY AND MALTA. Palermo, Messina, &c.

		l.	s.	d.
A Pichila	=	0	0	0
6 Pichili	= a Grain	0	0	0
8 Pichili	= a Ponti	0	0	0
10 Grains	= a Carlin	0	0	0
20 Grains	= a Tarin	0	0	0
6 Tarins	= a Florin of Ex.	0	1	6
13 Tarins	= a Ducat of Ex.	0	3	4
60 Catlins	= an Ounce	0	7	8
2 Ounces	= a Pittole	0	15	4

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini	=	0	0	0
6 Quatrini	= a Bayoc	0	0	0
10 Bayocs	= a Julio	0	0	6
30 Bayocs	= a Lire	0	1	0
3 Julios	= a Testoon	0	1	6
85 Bayocs	= a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3
105 Bayocs	= a Ducatoon	0	5	3
100 Bayocs	= a Crown	0	5	0
31 Julios	= a Pistole	0	15	6

VENICE. Bergamo, &c.

A Picoli	=	0	0	0
12 Picoli	= a Soldi	0	0	0
64 Soldi	= a Gros	0	0	2
18 Soldi	= a Jule	0	0	6
20 Soldi	= a Lire	0	0	6
3 Julies	= a Testoon	0	1	6
124 Soldi	= a Ducat current	0	3	5
24 Gros	= a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	4
17 Lires	= a Chequin	0	9	2

TURKEY. Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.

A Mangar	=	0	0	0
4 Mangars	= an Asper	0	0	0
3 Aspers	= a Parac	0	0	1
5 Aspers	= a Bestic	0	0	3
10 Aspers	= an Ollie	0	0	6
20 Aspers	= a Solota	0	1	0
80 Aspers	= a Piafire	0	4	0
100 Aspers	= a Caragrouch	0	5	0
10 Solotas	= a Xeriff	0	10	0

A S I A.

ARABIA. Medina, Mecca, Mecha, &c.

A Carret	=	0	0	0
5 Carrets	= a Caveer	0	0	0
7 Carrets	= a Comashee	0	0	0
80 Carrets	= a Larin	0	0	10
18 Comashees	= an Abyls	0	1	4
60 Comashees	= a Piafire	0	4	6
80 Caveers	= a Dollar	0	4	6
100 Comashees	= a Sequin	0	7	6
80 Larins	= a Tomond	3	7	6

A S I A.

PERSIA. Isfahan, Armus, Combroon, &c.

		l.	s.	d.
A Coz	=	0	0	0
4 Coz	= a Bifti	0	0	1
10 Coz	= a Shahee	0	5	4
20 Coz	= a Mamooda	0	0	8
25 Coz	= a Larin	0	0	10
4 Shahees	= an Abashee	0	1	4
5 Abashees	= an Or	0	6	8
12 Abashees	= a Bovello	0	16	0
50 Abashees	= a Tomond	3	6	8

M O G U L.

GUZZURAT. Surat, Cambay, &c.

A Pecka	=	0	0	0
2 Peckas	= a Pice	0	0	0
4 Pices	= a Fanam	0	0	1
5 Pices	= a Viz	0	0	2
16 Pices	= an Ana	0	0	7
4 Anas	= a Rupee	0	2	6
2 Rupees	= an English Crown	0	5	0
14 Anas	= a Pagoda	0	8	9
4 Pagodas	= a Gold Rupee	1	15	0

M O G U L. MALABAR.

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

* Budbrook	=	0	0	0
2 Budbrook	= a Re	0	0	0
5 Rez	= a Pice	0	0	0
16 Pices	= a Larce	0	0	5
20 Pices	= a Quarter	0	0	6
240 Rez	= a Xeraphim	0	1	4
4 Quart rs	= a Rupee	0	2	3
14 Quarters	= a Pagoda	0	8	0
60 Quarters	= a Gold Rupee	1	15	0

Goa, Vysapur, &c.

* A Re	=	0	0	0
2 Rez	= a Bazaraco	0	0	0
2 Bazaracos	= a Peca	0	0	0
20 Rez	= a Vintin	0	0	1
4 Vintins	= a Pice	0	0	5
3 Larces	= a Xeraphim	0	1	4
42 Vintins	= a Pica	0	4	6
4 Tangus	= a Pica	0	18	0
8 Tangus	= a Gold Rupee	1	15	0

M O G U L.

COROMANDEL. Madras, Pondicherry, &c.

A Cash	=	0	0	0
5 Cash	= a Viz	0	0	0
2 Viz	= a Pice	0	0	0
6 Pices	= a Pical	0	0	2
8 Pices	= a Fanam	0	0	3
10 Fanams	= a Rupee	0	2	6
2 Rupees	= an English Crown	0	5	0
36 Fanams	= a Pagoda	0	8	9
4 Pagodas	= a Gold Rupee	1	15	0

Town of Sigo, the
HARRISON, depute
the purposes in said D
of August, 1824.
A. R.
Singulars to this
Johnston and Co
Gardiner's place, Dab
can be viewed.
ADMIN. RTY.
of his Majesty's
Admiralty, London

Jack No. 100 Rupees

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

a cross of rupees one million sterling

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

971

A S I A.

A F R I C A.

BENGAL. Calicut, Calcutta, &c.

BARBARY. Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.

A Pice	=	a Fanam	0 0 0	1
4 Pices	=	a Viz	0 0 0	1
6 Pices	=	an Ana	0 0 0	1
12 Pices	=	a Piano	0 1 6	1
10 Anas	=	a Rupee	0 2 6	1
16 Anas	=	a French Ecu	0 5 0	1
2 Rupees	=	an English Crown	0 5 0	1
2 Rupees	=	a Pagoda	0 8 9	1

An Asper	=	a Medin	0 0 0	1
3 Aspers	=	a Rial old Plate	0 0 0	1
40 Aspers	=	a Double	0 1 1	1
2 Rials	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
4 Doubles	=	a Silver Chequin	0 3 4	1
24 Medins	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
30 Medins	=	a Zequin	0 8 10	1
180 Aspers	=	a Pistole	0 16 9	1

S I A M.

M O R O C C O.

Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.

Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Salles, &c.

A Cori	=	a Fettee	0 0 0	1
10 Cori	=	a Sataleer	0 0 7	1
125 Fettees	=	a Socco	0 1 3	1
250 Fettees	=	a Total	0 2 6	1
500 Fettees	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
900 Fettees	=	a Rial	0 5 0	1
2 Ticals	=	an Ecu	0 5 0	1
4 Soccos	=	a Crown	0 5 0	1
8 Sataleers	=		0 5 0	1

A Fluce	=	a Blanquil	0 0 0	1
24 Fluces	=	an Ounce	0 0 8	1
4 Blanquils	=	an Octavo	0 1 2	1
7 Blanquils	=	a Quarto	0 2 4	1
14 Blanquils	=	a Medio	0 4 8	1
28 Blanquils	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
54 Blanquils	=	a Xequin	0 9 0	1
100 Blanquils	=	a Pistole	0 16 9	1

C H I N A. Peking, Canton, &c.

A M E R I C A.

WEST INDIES.

ENGLISH. Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.

A Caxa	=	a Candereen	0 0 0	1
10 Caxa	=	a Mace	0 0 8	1
10 Candereens	=	a Rupee	0 2 6	1
35 Candereens	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
2 Rupees	=	a Rix-dollar	0 4 4	1
70 Candereens	=	an Ecu	0 5 0	1
7 Maces	=	a Crown	0 5 0	1
2 Rupees	=	a Tale	0 6 8	1
10 Maces	=		0 6 8	1

Halfpenny	=	a Penny	0 0 0	1
2 Halfpence	=	a Bit	0 0 5	1
7 1/2 Pence	=	a Shilling	0 0 8	1
12 Pence	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
75 Pence	=	a Crown	0 5 0	1
7 Shillings	=	a Pound	0 14 3	1
20 Shillings	=	a Pistole	0 16 9	1
24 Shillings	=	a Guinea	1 1 0	1

J A P A N. Jeddo, Meaco, &c.

F R E N C H. St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.

A Piti	=	a Mace	0 0 0	1
20 Pitis	=	an Ounce Silver	0 4 10	1
15 Maces	=	a Tale	0 6 8	1
20 Maces	=	an Ingot	0 9 8	1
30 Maces	=	an Ounce Gold	3 3 0	1
13 Ounces Silver	=	a Japanefe	6 6 0	1
2 Ounces Gold	=	a Double	12 12 0	1
2 Japanefes	=	a Cattee	66 3 0	1

A Half Sol	=	a Sol	0 0 0	1
2 Half Sols	=	a Half Scalin	0 0 2	1
7 1/2 Sols	=	a Scalin	0 0 5	1
15 Sols	=	a Livre	0 0 7	1
20 Sols	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
7 Livres	=	an Ecu	0 4 6	1
8 Livres	=	a Pistole	0 16 9	1
26 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1 0 0	1

A F R I C A.

C O N T I N E N T.

EGYPT. Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.

ENGLISH. Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.

An Asper	=	a Medin	0 0 0	1
3 Aspers	=	an Italian Ducat	0 3 4	1
24 Medins	=	a Piaftre	0 4 0	1
80 Aspers	=	a Dollar	0 4 6	1
30 Medins	=	an Ecu	0 5 0	1
96 Aspers	=	a Crown	0 5 0	1
32 Medins	=	a Sultanin	0 10 0	1
200 Aspers	=	a Pargo Dollar	0 10 0	1

A Penny	=	a Shilling	0 0 1	1
12 Pence	=	a Pound	1 0 0	1
20 Shillings	=			1
2 Pounds	=			1
3 Pounds	=			1
4 Pounds	=			1
5 Pounds	=			1
6 Pounds	=			1
7 Pounds	=			1
8 Pounds	=			1
9 Pounds	=			1
10 Pounds	=			1

The Value of the Currency alters, according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

A M E R I C A.

CONTINENT.

Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.

• A Denier	
12 Deniers	= •a Sol.
20 Sols	= •a Livre.
2 Livres	
3 Livres	
4 Livres	
5 Livres	
6 Livres	
7 Livres	
8 Livres	
9 Livres	
10 Livres	

The Value of the Currency alters, according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the *Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the *WEST INDIES*, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

The

Bef. C
4004
4003
3017
2348
2247

2234
2188
2059
1921
1897
1856
1822
1715
1574
1571
1556

1546
1503
1493
1491
1485
1453

A

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

O F

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS;

ALSO

The *ÆRA*, the *COUNTRY*, and *WRITINGS* of *LEARNED MEN*:

The whole comprehending, in one view, the Analysis or Outlines of General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

Bef. Christ.

- 4004 **T**HE creation of the world, and of Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain.
3017 Enoch translated into Heaven.
2348 The old world destroyed by a deluge.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity; upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.
2234 Celestial observations are begun at Babylon.
2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt.
2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria.
1921 The covenant of God made with Abraham.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness by fire from heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos in Greece begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon the Egyptian invents the letters.
1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.
Epimetheus invented the method of making earthen vessels.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt.
1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1503 Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom together with the Israelites.
1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.

- 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences.
- 1406 Iron is found from the accidental burning of Mount Ida.
- 1372 The Milesians arrived from Spain in Ireland.
- 1263 Argonautic expedition.
- 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war, and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
- 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
- 1004 The Temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
- 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to heaven.
- 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
- 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
- Scales and measures invented by Phidon.
- 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
- 786 Trireme galleys invented by the Corinthians.
- 776 The first Olympiad begins.
- 753 Era of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
- 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel overthrown by Salmanasser king of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
- The first eclipse of the moon on record.
- 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
- 608 The game of chess invented.
- 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
- 600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, and gives general notions of the universe.
- Maps, globes, and the signs of the zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
- 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar to Babylon.
- 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
- 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
- 559 Cyrus the first king of Persia.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon destroyed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issued an edict for the return of the Jews.
- 534 The first tragedy acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
- 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
- 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
- 509 Tarquin the seventh, and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
- 486 Æschylus the Greek Poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
- 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
- 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
- 451 The decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
- 443 Censors created at Rome.
- 432 Nineteen years cycle invented by Meton.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
- Malachi the last of the prophets.
- 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
- 398 Catapultæ invented by Dionysius.
- 379 Boeotian war commences in Greece, finished in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the last of the Grecian heroes. After his death, Philip, brother to the king of Macedon, who had been educated under him, privately set out for that country, seized the kingdom, and after a continual course of war, treachery and dissimulation, put an end to the liberty of the Greeks by the battle of Cheronea.

- 336 Philip king of Macedon murdered, and succeeded by his son Alexander the Great.
 332 Alexandria in Egypt built.
 331 Alexander, king of Macedon, conquers Darius king of Persia, and other nations of Asia.
 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after destroying his wives, children, brother, mother, and sisters.
 291 Darkness at Rome at noon-day.
 290 Solar quadrants introduced at Rome.
 285 Dionysius, of Alexandria, began his astronomical era on Monday June 26, being the first who found the solar year to consist exactly of 365 days 5 hours and 49 minutes.
 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
 269 The first coinage of silver at Rome.
 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 24 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.
 250 Eratosthenes first attempted to measure the earth.
 242 Conic sections invented by Apollonius.
 234 The first divorce at Rome.
 218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles; but being abandoned and refused support by his countrymen, fails in the accomplishment of his purpose.
 208 Syracuse taken by Marcellus.
 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury to Rome.
 170 Eighty thousand Jews massacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
 146 Carthage and Corinth razed to the ground by the Romans.
 145 An hundred thousand inhabitants of Antioch massacred in one day by the Jews.
 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
 125 Colchester built.
 63 Catiline's conspiracy against the liberties of his country detected.
 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
 The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
 44 Cæsar killed in the senate house.
 43 Brutus, one of the conspirators against Cæsar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquished in the battle of Philippi, kills himself.
 31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
 30 Alexandria taken by Octavius, and Egypt reduced to a Roman province.
 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
 25 Coin first used in Britain.
 8 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.
A. C.
 12 CHRIST disputes with the Doctors in the temple.
 20 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John.
 33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at three o'clock P. M.
 His Resurrection on Sunday, April 5: his Ascension, Thursday, May 14.
 36 St. Paul converted.
 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
 Pontius Pilate kills himself.
 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
 46 Christianity carried into Spain.
 49 London is founded by the Romans; and in 368 surrounded with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.
 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
 52 The council of the apostles at Jerusalem.
 55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
 60 Christianity preached in Britain.
 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
 62 St. Paul is sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.
 63 The acts of the Apostles written.
 Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero, the first persecution against the Christians.
 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
 70 Titus takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain.
 95 St. John the Evangelist wrote his revelation—his Gospel in 97.
 120 Holy water used in churches.
 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pilius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, since called Antoninus's wall.
 136 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
 139 Justin writes his first apology for the Christians.
 140 Dublin built.
 152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
 167 Fonts instituted.
 211 Gold and silver coin first used in Scotland.
 The emperor Severus, after having conquered the Scots, and pent them up by a new wall between the Forth and Clyde (since called Graham's Dyke), having also conquered the Parthians in the East, and extended the Roman empire to its utmost bounds, dies at York.
 217 The Septuagint said to be found in a cask.
 Church-yards begin to be consecrated.
 256 Copes instituted.
 260 Valerian is taken prisoner by Sapor king of Persia, and slayed alive.
 274 Silk first brought from India.
 Candles first introduced into churches.
 291 Two emperors, and two Cæsars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
 303 The tenth general persecution begins under Diocletian and Galerius.
 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
 308 Cardinals first instituted.
 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
 325 The first general council at Nice.
 Combats of gladiators abolished.
 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforwards called Constantinople.
 331 Constantine orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
 363 The emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital); each being now under the government of different emperors.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

977

- The Scots utterly defeated and driven out of their country by the Picts and Romans.
 Marriage in Lent forbidden.
- 383 Title of knights Banneret first given.
- 400 Bells invented by bishop Paulinus of Nola in Campagna.
- 404 The kingdom of Scotland revives under Fergus II.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
 Salique law confirmed by this monarch.
- 426 The Romans withdraw their troops from Britain, advising the Britains to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 432 St. Patrick began to preach in Ireland; he died 17th March, 493, aged 122 years.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harraffed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravage the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire entirely destroyed; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians; under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed.
- 496 Clovis king of France baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 510 Paris becomes the capital of France.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian æra is introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, is published.
- 532 Carisbrook Castle, in the isle of Wight, built.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 600 Bells first used in churches.
- 606 The power of the popes begins by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 613 Clocks and dials set up in churches.
- 622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina in Arabia. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, *i. e.* the Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar their caliph.
- 664 Glass invented in England by Benalf a monk.
- 670 Building with stone introduced into England by Bennet a monk.
- 685 The Britons totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 696 Churches first begun to be built in England.
- 711 Beverly Cathedral, Yorkshire, built.
- 713 The Saracens conquer Spain. Their progress stopped in France by Charles Martel in 732.
- 726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the Eastern Empire.
- 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ begun to be used in history.
- 749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
- 761 Thirty thousand books burnt by order of the Emperor Leo.
- 762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital of the Saracen Empire.
- 786 The surplice, a vestment of the Pagan priests, introduced into churches.
- 800 Charlemagne, King of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire, and endeavours in vain to restore learning in Europe.
- 828 Egbert king of Wessex unites the Heptarchy by the name of England.
- 838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kennet, which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
 The Danes with 60 ships arrived at, and took Dublin.
- 854 Church of St. Giles in Edinburgh built.
- 867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.

- 871 Bath Springs first discovered.
- 886 Juries first instituted.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the University of Oxford about this time.
- 915 The University of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen Empire divided into seven kingdoms.
- 940 Christianity established in Denmark.
- 945 Bells first hung up in England in Croyland Abbey, Lincolnshire.
- 960 Castleton Castle in the Isle of Man built.
- 979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
- 989 Christianity established in Russia.
- 991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens.
- 996 Otho III. makes the Empire of Germany elective.
- 997 Durham founded.
- 999 Boleslaus the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper made of cotton rags comes into use.
- 1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new style.
- 1014 On Good-Friday, April 23rd, the famous battle of Clontarf was fought, wherein the Danes were completely defeated with a loss of 11,000 men, and driven out of Ireland—but the Irish King, Brian Boromy was killed, aged 88.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
Priests forbidden to marry.
- 1017 Canute, King of Denmark, gets possession of England.
- 1025 Musical gamut invented.
- 1038 Christ-Church, Dublin, built by Sitricus, king of the Ostmen.
- 1040 The Danes driven out of Scotland.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
- 1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Duninane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.
- 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain: after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
- 1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the Pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to Rome, towards the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomsday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
The Tower of London built by the same prince, to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon or English language; are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
- 1086 Kingdom of Bohemia begun.
- 1088 Curfew bell established. Abolished in 1100.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land begun.
- 1100 Goodwin Sands formed by the Sea overflowing 4000 acres belonging to earl Goodwin, of Kent.
- 1107 King's speech first delivered by Henry I.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
Learning revived in Cambridge.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted to defend the Sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1140 King Stephen grants liberty to his nobles to build castles; in consequence of which 1100 are erected in 14 years.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.

- 1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1170 Paper first made of linen rags.
- 1171 Dermot Mac-Murrough, prince of Leinster, being beaten and put to flight by other princes, induces some English adventurers to land in Ireland, and assist him in recovering his dominions: Dublin is besieged and taken by Raymond le Gros.
- 1172 Henry II. lands at Waterford, and soon after obtains from Richard, E. Strongbow, (who had married the daughter of Mac-Murrough, and according to compact, succeeded to his dominions) a surrender of Dublin; where he erects a pavilion of wicker work, and entertains several Irish princes, who, voluntarily, submit to him, on condition of being governed by the same laws, civil and ecclesiastical, and enjoying the same liberties and immunities, as the people of England.
- Henry II. landed in Ireland, with 400 Knights and 5000 Men.
- 1173 The same king grants its first charter to Dublin; and, by divers privileges, encourages a colony from Bristol to settle in it.
- 1174 Richard, E. Strongbow dies, and is buried in Christ-church.
- Henry II. creates his younger son, 12 years old, king or lord of Ireland, who grants charters to the city of Dublin, and other corporations.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England digested about this time by Glanville.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1086 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
- 1190 Patrick's church built, and Christ-church rebuilt.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- Richard treacherously imprisoned in his way home by the emperor of Germany.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit*, first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
- Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1205 Foundation of Dublin castle laid. Completed in 1213.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained its first charter from king John.
- 1210 King John met in Dublin upwards of 20 Irish princes, who swore allegiance to him, and there caused them to establish the English laws and customs.
- Courts of judicature first erected in Ireland.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England; and the following year it is granted to the Irish by Henry III.
- 1217 The same prince grants the city of Dublin to the citizens, in fee farm, at 200 marks *per ann.*
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of barbarians, under Gengis-Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, conquer the greatest part of that continent, and in 22 years destroy upwards of 14 millions of people.
- 1233 The inquisition, begun in 1204, is now trusted to the Dominicans.
- The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1252 Magnifying glasses invented by Roger Bacon.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alonzo king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which puts an end to the empire of the Saracens.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, but most of them are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the western isles.
- 1264 The commons of England have a place in parliament.
- 1269 The Hamburg company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1280 Pulvis fulminans and gun-powder invented by Roger Bacon.
- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the first prince of Wales.

- 1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England: which lays the foundation of a long and defolating war between the two nations.
Spectacles invented by Alexander Spina, a Spanish monk.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury. Splinters of wood generally used for lights.
Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1299 Windmills invented.
- 1300 About this time the mariner's compass was invented, or improved, by John Gioia, or Goya, a Neapolitan. The flower de luce, the arms of the duke of Anjou, then king of Naples, was placed by him at the point of the needle, in compliment to that prince.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
Interest of money in England at 45 per cent.
- 1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, in which the English are overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and all their boasted pretensions of sovereignty are utterly dissipated.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Christendom.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder first suggested as useful for warlike purposes by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of canon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressly.
Oil painting first made use of by John Vanneck.
Heralds college instituted in England.
- 1344 The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.
Gold first coined in England.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots, is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his sons are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
St. Patrick's cathedral, Dublin, burnt.
- 1364 Ditto rebuilt.
- 1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London.
Windfor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chase.
Title of Baron first given by Richard II.
- 1390 Coarse cloth first made in England at Kendal.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey rebuilt and enlarged.
Hall ditto.
Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.
- 1402 Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane, and the power of the Turks almost entirely destroyed.
- 1404 Hats for men invented at Paris by a Swiss.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1412 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
- 1416 The art of curing herrings invented by William Boeckel, a Dutchman: by which he rendered an essential service to his country.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

981

- 1428 The siege of Orleans. The celebrated Maid of Orleans appears, and gives the first blow to the English power in France. She is afterwards taken prisoner, and basely put to death.
- 1430 Laurentius of Harleim invents the art of printing.
- 1437 Exportation of corn first permitted in England.
- 1441 Eton college founded by Henry I. 6th
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The sea broke in at Dort, and drowned 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which utterly overthrows the Roman empire.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland founded. Otto Guericke, a German, invents the air-pump. Cape Verd Isles first seen.
Duelling appointed in certain cafes in France, in order to have the judgment of God.
- 1459 A Mint erected in the Castle of Dublin.
- 1460 Engravings and etchings in copper invented.
- 1471 Decimal arithmetic invented, and the use of tangents in trigonometry introduced, by Regiomontanus.
- 1473 Greek language brought into France.
- 1483 Richard III. king of England, and last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster.
- 1485 Great numbers carried off by the sweating sickness.
- 1486 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions; but are cruelly persecuted by the inquisitors.
William Caxton the first English printer.
- 1492 America discovered by Columbus.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
Jamaica discovered.
- 1496 Jesus college, Cambridge, founded.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America discovered by Americus Vespufius, from whom the continent takes its name.
- 1499 North America taken possession of, for Hen. VII. by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles.
Brasil discovered by Pinson.
Coals discovered in the neighbourhood of New-castle.
- 1503 Mines used in the attack and defence of places invented.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
Christ college, Cambridge, founded by Hen. VII's mother.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1512 Florida discovered.
- 1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1516 Corpus Christi college, of Oxford, founded by bishop Winton.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, discovers the straits which bear his name, makes the first voyage round the world, but is killed by savages in the Marianne islands.
Republic of Geneva founded.
- 1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of Popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
Chocolate first brought from Mexico by the Spaniards.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1530 Copernicus revives the Pythagorean system of astronomy.
- 1532 Christ-church college, Oxford, founded by Henry VIII.
- 1533 Currant-trees brought into England from Zante.

- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized.
About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king.
Pins first used in England; before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 Interest of money first established in England by law at ten *per cent*.
Ann Ascue, a Protestant, cruelly tortured by order of Henry VIII. who, to the utter disgrace of royalty, put his own hands to the rack, as not thinking the executioners sufficiently expert.
She endured every thing with patience, and was afterwards burnt.
- 1549 Lords lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse guards instituted in England.
Anatomy revived by Jacobus Carpenfis.
Charries, pears, &c. introduced into England.
- 1553 Circulation of the blood through the lungs first published by Mich. Servetus.
- 1555 The Russian company established in England.
- 1557 Groats and half groats the greatest silver coin in England.
- 1560 Siberia was about this time discovered, under the reign of the Czar Ivan Basilides.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
The 39 Articles of the English faith established.
- 1565 Botany revived at Thuringe in Germany.
Potatoes first brought to Ireland from New Spain.
Henry Lord Darnly, husband to Queen Mary of Scotland, blown up with gun-powder in the Provost's house at Edinburgh, about two in the morning of Feb. 11.
- 1569 Royal Exchange, of London, first built.
Circulation of the blood published by Celsus.
Mary Queen of Scotland, driven from her kingdom by the rebellion of her subjects, flies to Queen Elizabeth for protection, by whom she is treacherously imprisoned.
- 1571 Jesus college, Oxford, founded.
Printing in Irish Characters first instituted.
- 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
- 1573 Marby hill in Hereford removed of itself.
- 1575 Lucern brought into the Palatinate, soon after into England.
- 1578 Apricots and artichokes introduced into England.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
English East India company incorporated—established 1600.
English Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
Parochial register first appointed in England.
- 1581 J. Usher, archbishop of Armagh, born in Dublin, drew up 104 articles of religion for Ireland, 1615; which were established, 1635.—Died, 1656.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th October being counted 15.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
Duelling introduced into England.
- 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England.
Bombs invented at Venlo.
- 1590 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity college, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1600 Building with brick introduced into England by the earl of Arundel, most of the houses in London being hitherto built with wood.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

983

- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors), dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts), as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
- 1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered at Westminster.
Kepler lays the foundation of the Newtonian system of attraction.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
- 1609 Alum first manufactured in England.
- 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravilliac, a priest.
Hudson's Bay discovered by a Captain of that name, who is left by his men to perish on that desolate coast.
- 1611 Baronets first created in England by James I.
The present translation of the Bible finished.
- 1614 Napier, of Marcheston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
The custom of powdering the hair took its rise from some ballad-singers at St. Germain's fair, who powdered themselves to look the more ridiculous.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1618 New Holland discovered by the Dutch.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, fully confirms the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
- 1625 The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drebellius.
- 1630 Peruvian bark first brought to France.
- 1631 Newspapers first published at Paris.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1633 Covent Garden begun by the Earl of Bedford.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by Lord Baltimore.
Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1640 King Charles disoblises his Scottish subjects; on which their army under General Lesley, enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malecontents in England.
The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English Protestants were killed.
- 1642 Civil war begins in England.
- 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
Sympathetick powder made known by Sir Kenelm Digby.
- 1647 The first Selenographick maps made by Hevelius.
- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1652 The first coffee-house in London.
The speaking trumpet invented by Kircher, a Jesuit.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the Protectorship.
- 1655 The English, under Admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the Protectorship by his son Richard.
- 1659 Transfusion of the blood first suggested at Oxford.
- 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark being oppressed by the Nobles, surrender their privileges to Fred. III. who becomes absolute.
Charles II. gave a Collar of S.S. to the Mayors of Dublin.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.
Pendulum Clocks invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman.
Fire-engines invented.
- 1663 Carolina planted.
- 1665 The plague rages in London.

- 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
Academy of sciences established in France.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1668 St. James's Park planted, and made a thoroughfare for public use by Charles II.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.
- 1671 Academy of Architecture established in France.
- 1672 Lewis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
- 1673 St. Helena taken by the English.
- 1675 Coffee-houses shut up by proclamation, as encouragers of sedition.
- 1676 Repeating clocks and watches invented by Barlow.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act passed.
- 1679 Darkness at London, that one could not read at noon-day, January 12.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and continued visible from Nov. 3. to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
- 1682 College of physicians, at Edinburgh, incorporated.
Royal academy established at Nismes.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
City Tholsel, Dublin, built.
Royal Hospital, Kilmainham, built at the charge of the army, by James D. of Ormond.
- 1685 The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Lewis XIV.
- 1688 The Revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James retires to France, Dec. 3.
Papin's digester invented.
- 1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James II. are proclaimed February 16.
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed after gaining the battle of Killcrankie, upon which the Highlanders disperse.
The land-tax passes in England.
The toleration act passes in ditto.
Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeated the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England established by king William.
The first public lottery was drawn this year.
Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1695 Bank of Scotland established.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1697 Malt-tax established.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII. of Sweden, begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St. Germain's, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
Cottonian library settled for public benefit.
Society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by Queen Ann, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor and States-General, renews the war against France and Spain.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

985

- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Rooke.
The battle of Bleinheim, won by the Duke of Marlborough and allies against the French.
The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.
Prussian blue discovered at Berlin.
Foundation of the Barracks of Dublin laid.
- 1706 The Treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, signed June 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by General Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the Duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig Ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The English South-Sea Company began.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-Britain, and Hudson's-Bay, in North-America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
Interest reduced to five per cent. in England.
- 1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.
Aurora Borealis first taken notice of.
- 1716 The Pretender married to the Princess Sobieski, grand-daughter to John Sobieski, late King of Poland.
An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1717 Guineas reduced to 21 shillings.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the rest; and in 24 hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine silk thread.
The South-Sea scheme in England begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.
- 1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.
Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.
- 1728 Linen-hall, Dublin, opened.
- 1729 Parliament sat at the Blue-coat hospital, Dublin, where an attempt was made to obtain the supplies for 21 years; but rejected by a majority of ONE.
Foundation of the Parliament house, College-Green, laid.
- 1731 The first person executed in Britain for forgery.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling.
Several public-spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia in North-America.
Broad pieces called in and coined into guineas.
- 1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace, at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1737 The earth proved to be flatted towards the poles.
- 1738 Westminster-bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, begun; finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
Violent frost for nine weeks after Christmas.
- 1742 The first ship with Irish coals arrived at Dublin from Newry.

- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the Queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France.
Commodore Anfon returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.
Electric shock discovered.
Lima and Callao swallowed up by an earthquake.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
Halifax, in Nova-Scotia, built.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.
British herring fishery incorporated.
Dublin Society incorporated by charter.
Spire erected on St. Patrick's steeple.
- 1750 Antiquarian Society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British Museum erected at Montague house.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine Society established at London.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French King.
Identity of electric fire and lightning discovered by Dr. Franklin, who thereupon invented a method of securing buildings from thunder-storms.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 Black-Friars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expence of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll.
- 1761 Foundation of the Light-house, Poolbeg, laid.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His Majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
Grand canal adjoining the city basin, Dublin, begun; completed to Monastereven in 1786.
- 1766 A great spot passed the sun's centre.
Gibraltar almost destroyed by a storm.
- 1767 An act passed for liberty to build the New Town of Edinburgh.
- 1768 Academy of painting established in London.
The Turks imprison the Russian Ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
Duration of Irish parliaments limited to eight years.
Light-house at Poolbeg, in the harbour of Dublin, finished.
- 1769 Electricity of the aurora borealis discovered by Wideburg at Jena.
Foundation of the Royal Exchange, Dublin, laid.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his Majesty's ship the Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The King of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.
The Pretender marries the Princess of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas, late Earl of Aylesbury.

- 1772 A dreadful fire at Antigua.
Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the island of Java by an electrified cloud.
A revolution in Denmark.
The Emperor of Germany, Empress of Russia, and the King of Prussia, strip the King of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Capt. Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole; but having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25.
The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orixá, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad, upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.
The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
- 1774 Peace proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.
The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the colonies, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of the British parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, Sept. 5.
First petition of Congress to the King, Nov.
- 1775 April 19. The first action happens in America between the King's troops and the Provincials at Lexington.
A dreadful fire in Grenada; loss computed at 500,000l.
May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 March 17, The town of Boston evacuated by the King's troops.
An unsuccessful attempt in July, made by Commodore Sir Peter Parker and Lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charlestown in South Carolina.
Order for calling in all the light gold, and ordering it for the future to pass only by weight.
The Congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.
The Americans driven from Long-Island, New-York, in August, with great slaughter, and the city of New-York is afterwards taken possession of by the King's troops.
December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Trenton.
Torture abolished in Poland.
Foundation of Public Offices; Dublin, laid.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army to the Generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the Courts of France, February 6.
The remains of the Earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
The Earl of Carlisle, William Eden, Esq; and George Johnstone, Esq; arrived at Philadelphia the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.
Philadelphia evacuated by the King's troops, June 18.
The Congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners.
Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.
Pondicherry surrenders to the arms of Great Britain, Oct. 17.
St. Lucia taken by the French, Dec. 28.
- 1779 St. Vincent taken by the French.
Grenada taken by the French, July 3.
Oct. 12. Both Houses of the Irish Parliament address the King for a free trade.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The inquisition abolished in the Duke of Modena's dominions.

- 1780 Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, Jan. 8.
 The admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships the of line, one more driven on shore, and another blown up, Jan. 16.
 Three actions between Admiral Rodney and the Count de Guichen, in the West-Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them decisive.
 Charlestown, South Carolina, surrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
 Pensacola, and the whole province of West-Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
 The Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the House of Commons with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Catholics, June 2.
 That event followed by the most daring riots in the cities of London and Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.
 Five English East-Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West-Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug. 8.
 Earl Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over General Gates, near Camden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American prisoners are taken, Aug. 16.
 Mr. Laurens, late President of the Congress, taken in an American packet near Newfoundland, Sept. 3.
 General Arnold deserts the service of the Congress, escapes to New-York, and is made a Brigadier-general in the Royal Service, September 24.
 Major André, Adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in the province of New-York, Oct. 2.
 Mr. Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower on a charge of high treason, October 4.
 Dreadful hurricanes in the West-Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 3. and 10.
 A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, Dec. 20.
 First Irish State Lottery drawn.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia taken by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan, Feb. 3. Retaken by the French, Nov. 27.
 The island of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.
 A bloody engagement fought between an English Squadron under the command of Admiral Parker, and a Dutch Squadron under the command of Admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank, August 5.
 Earl Cornwallis, with a considerable British army, surrendered prisoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of General Washington and Count Rochambeau, at York-town, in Virginia, Oct. 19.
 Foundation of the New Custom-house, Dublin, laid; the building finished in 1789.
- 1782 Trincomale, on the island of Ceylon, taken by Admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.
 Minorca surrendered to the arms of the King of Spain, Feb. 5.
 The island of St. Christopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.
 The island of Nevis, in the West-Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.
 Montserrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.
 The House of Commons address the king against any farther prosecution of offensive war on the Continent of North America, March 4.; and resolve, that the House would consider all those as enemies to his Majesty and this country, who should advise, or by any means attempt, the further prosecution of offensive war on the Continent of North America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.
 Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet under the command of Count de Grasse, whom he takes prisoner, near Dominica, in the West Indies, April 12.
 The resolution of the House of Commons relating to John Wilkes, Esq; and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17, 1769: rescinded May 3.
 April 16. The Parliament of Ireland asserted its independence and constitutional rights.
 The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.

- 1782 The first great Dungannon meeting of Delegates from the Ulster Volunteers held Feb. 15.
 The bills, for the Modification of Poyning's Law,—for Reassuming the Appellant Jurisdiction,—the Independence of the Judges,—the Limited Mutiny Bill,—and the Habeas Corpus Act, received the Royal assent, July 28.
 The French took and destroyed the forts and settlements in Hudson's Bay, Aug. 24.
 The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.
 Treaty concluded between the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.
 Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic Majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, Nov. 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic Majesty and the kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, Jan. 20.
 The order of St. Patrick instituted Feb. 5.
 Three earthquakes at Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28th.
 Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 30.
 Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.
 The fire balloon invented by M. Montgolfier of Lyons; from which discovery Messrs. Charles and Robert of Paris taking the hint, construct inflammable gas, or the air balloon.
 Courts of justice in England and Ireland separated by a British act of parliament.
 The Bank of Ireland, established by act of parliament, opened 25th June.
 A Convention of Representatives from all the Volunteer Corps of Ireland held in the Rotunda, Dublin, for promoting a Parliamentary Reform, 10th Nov.
- 1784 The city of London wait on the King with an address of thanks for dismissing the coalition ministry, Jan. 16.
 The Great Seal stolen from the Lord Chancellor's house in Great Ormond-street, March 24.
 The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 7.
 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
 The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee at Westminster Abbey, May 26.
 Proclamation for a public thanksgiving, July 2.
 Mr. Lunardi ascended in an air balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields; the first attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.
 Ascended at Edinburgh.
- 1785 Richard Crossic, Esq. ascended from Ranelagh Gardens, in a barge suspended to an air balloon, and landed on the North Strand, near Marino; being the first who explored the Irish atmosphere, Jan. 19.
 A Congress of Representatives from the Counties of Ireland held in Dublin, for promoting a Parliamentary Reform, 20th Jan.
 The House of Commons of Ireland divided on the propositions for a Commercial Intercourse with Great Britain, when the numbers were, 127 for, and 108 against.—Au. 13.
 The bill containing said propositions withdrawn by Mr. Orde.—Aug. 15.
- 1786 Foundation Stone of the New Four-Courts, Dublin, laid.
 An Act passed for establishing a Police in the City of Dublin, &c.
- 1787 His Grace Charles Duke of Rutland, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, died Oct. 25.
- 1789 The Parliament of Ireland being informed by the Lord Lieutenant (the Marquis of Buckingham) of the incapacity of the King to execute the powers of government, they addressed the Prince of Wales to accept, without limitation, the Regency of this kingdom during his Majesty's indisposition; and the Marquis having refused transmitting the address, the two Houses appointed Commissioners for presenting the same on the 20th Feb. thro' whom they received his Royal Highness's answers on the 2d and 20th March, declining their offer, on account of the recovery of his Majesty.
 The Parliament of Ireland passed a Vote of Censure on the Lord Lieutenant, for expressions contained in his answer to their application for transmitting the above address, Feb. 20.
 A two month's Money-bill passed in the Parliament of Ireland, March 23.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

* * In the London Edition, this List is composed of English and Irish Writers only, but the editors of this Edition, considering that some knowledge of foreigners would be equally gratifying, have therefore added, from authentic materials, the names of the principal authors of France, Italy, &c. &c.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the Time when the Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by fl.*

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| <p>Bef. Ch.
 907 HOMER, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished.
 Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to have lived near the time of Homer.
 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
 600 Sappho, the Greek Lyric poetess, fl.
 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist.
 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece.
 478 Confucius, the Chinese philosopher.
 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet.
 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet.
 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet.
 413 Herodotus, of Greece, the first writer of profane history.
 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl.
 Euripides, the Greek tragic poet.
 406 Sophocles, ditto.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.
 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian.
 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician.
 Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian.
 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates.
 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator.
 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato.
 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself.
 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle.
 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl.
 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl.
 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
 268 Berosus, the Chaldean historian.
 264 Zeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in Greece.
 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.</p> | <p>208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet.
 179 Ennius, the Roman poet.
 169 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet.
 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.
 124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian.
 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet.
 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed.
 Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl.
 Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death.
 Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl.
 34 Sallust, the Roman historian.
 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl.
 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet.
 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets.
 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet.
 A. C.
 17 Livy, the Roman historian.
 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet.
 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, fl.
 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
 33 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist.
 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, fl.
 62 Perseus, the Roman satiric poet.
 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman, historian of Alexander the Great, fl.
 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death.
 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto.
 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian.
 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian.
 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl.
 95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate.
 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet.
 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian.</p> |
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- 104 Martial of Spain, the epigrammatic poet.
 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters.
 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian.
 119 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer.
 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet.
 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
 150 Justin, the Roman historian, fl.
 161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, fl.
 167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
 186 Lucian, the Roman philologer.
 Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman Emperor and philosopher.
 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
 200 Dlogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, fl.
 254 Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria.
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, fl.
 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom.
 273 Longinus the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian.
 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer.
 379 Basil, bishop of Cæsarea.
 389 Gregory Nazienzen, bishop of Constantinople.
 395 Claudian, the Roman poet, fl.
 Heliodorus, Phœnicia, Æthiopicks, or the loves of Theagenes and Chariclea, fl.
 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
 524 Boethius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher.
 529 Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Roman historian.
 1321 Dante, Florence; poetry.
 1374 Petrarch, Arezzo in Italy; poetry.
 1376 Boccace, Tuscany; the Decameron, poems, &c.
 1400 Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
 1481 Platina, Italy; Lives of the Popes, &c.
 1502 Montaigne, Perigord in France; essays.
 1509 Philip de Comines, Flanders; historical memoirs.
 1530 Machiavel, Florence; politics, comedies, &c.
 1534 Ariosto, Lombardy; Orlando Furioso, and five comedies.
 1535 Sir Thomas More, London; history, politics, &c.
 1536 Erasmus, Rotterdam; Colloquies, Praise of Folly, &c.
 1540 Guicciardini, Florence; history of Italy.
 1543 Copernicus, Thorn in Prussia; astronomy.
 1549 Michael de Cervantes Saavedra, Alcalá in Spain; Don Quixote, Galatea, a pastoral romance, novels.
 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
 1566 Hannibal Caro, Civita Nuova; poems and translations.
 Vida, Cremona; art of poetry, and other didactic poems.
 1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology.
 1578 Rev. John Knox, the Scots reformer; history of the church of Scotland.
 1579 Camoens, Lisbon; the Lusiad, an epic poem.
 1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; history of Scotland, psalms of David, politics &c.
 1590 Davila, isle of Cyprus; history of the civil wars of France.
 1595 Torquato Tasso, Italy; Jerusalem delivered, an epic poem, Aminta, a pastoral poem.
 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
 1600 Rev. Richard Hooker, Exeter; Ecclesiastical Polity.
 1605 Ulysses Aldrovandus, Bologna; natural history.
 1608 Mendez, Castile; history of China, fl.
 1610 Richard Knolles, Northamptonshire; history of the Turks.
 1612 Battista Guarini, Ferrara; the Faithful Shepherd, a pastoral poem.
 1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 35 dramatic pieces.
 1616 Wm. Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
 1622 John Napier, Marcheston, Scotland; inventor of logarithms.
 1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.

MODERN AUTHORS

- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; history of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
 901 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.
 980 Avicenna, the Mahometan philosopher and physician.
 1118 Anna Comnena; the Alexiad, or life of her father the emperor Alexius Comnenus.
 1206 Averroes, Corduba, the Arabian philosopher.
 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; history of England.
 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.

- 1623 Father Paul Sarpi, Venice; history of the Council of Trent, Rights of Sovereigns and Subjects, letters, &c.
- 1624 John Mariana, Castile; history of Spain.
- 1625 John Baptist Marino, Naples; poetry.
- 1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.
- 1627 Lewis de Gongora, Cordova; poetry and plays.
- 1628 Francis de Malherbe, Normandy; poetry.
- 1630 John Kepler, Wittemberg; astronomy.
- 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
- 1635 Trajan Boccalini, Rome; satirical pieces, &c.
- 1638 Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
- 1639 Philip Massinger, Salisbury; 14 dramatic pieces.
- 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
Jeremiah Horrox, Lancashire; a most excellent astronomer, died at the age of 22.
- 1646 Lewis Velez de Guevara, Andalusia; comedies.
- 1650 Des Cartes, Touraine; philosophy and mathematics.
- 1654 John Selden, Suffex; antiquities and laws.
John Lewis de Balzac, Angoulême; letters, &c.
- 1655 Peter Gassendi, Provence; astronomy.
- 1656 Archbishop Usher, Dublin; divinity and chronology.
- 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
- 1662 Pascal, Auvergne; Thoughts upon Religion, &c.
- 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
- 1669 Sir John Denham, Dublin; Cooper's Hill, and other poems.
- 1673 Moliere, Paris; comedies.
- 1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.
Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; history of the civil wars in England.
- 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry and optics.
James Rohault, Amiens; physics.
- 1677 Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.
- 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcesterhire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
Francis, Duke of Rochefoucault, France; maxims.
Dr. Lewis Moreri, Provence; Historical Dictionary.
- 1683 Mezeray, Lower Normandy; Abridgement of the history of France.
- 1684 Wentworth Dillon, Earl of Roscommon, Ireland; essay on translated verse, Horace's art of poetry.
Peter Corneille, Rouen; 30 dramatic pieces.
- 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
- 1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems.
- 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.
- 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; history of physic.
Dr. Bonet, Geneva; medicine.
- 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
- 1691 Honourable Robert Boyle, natural and experimental philosophy and theology.
Sir George Mackenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and Laws of Scotland.]
- 1692 Giles Menage, Angers; philology, miscellanies in verse and prose.
St. Réal, Savoy; conspiracy of the Spaniards against the Republic of Venice.
- 1694 John Tillotson, Archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.
Antoinetta de la Garde Des Houlières, Paris; poetry.
Marcellus Malpighi, Bologna; discovered the circulation of the sap in plants.
Puffendorf, Upper Saxony; jurisprudence and history.
- 1695 D'Herbelot, Paris; Bibliothèque orientale.
Huygens, Hague; mathematics and astronomy.
- 1696 John De La Brieyere, France; characters.
Marchioness De Sevigné, France; letters.
- 1697 Sir W. Temple, London; politics and polite literature.
- 1698 W. Molyneux, Dublin; the case of Ireland stated.
- 1699 John Racine, France; tragedies.
- 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil, ode on Saint Cecilia's day, &c.
Thomas Creech, Dorsetshire; translations.
- 1703 Mascaron, Marseilles; funeral orations.
- 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government and theology.
Bocconi, Palermo; natural history.
Bossuet, Dijon; discourse upon Universal History, Funeral Orations, &c.
Bourdaloue, France; sermons.
- 1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.
- 1706 Baillet, Picardy; judgments of the learned, biography, &c.
- 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; 8 comedies.

- 1708 John Phillips, Oxfordshire; Splendid Shil-
ling, and other poems.
- 1709 Thomas Corneille, brother to Peter, trage-
dies.
- 1710 David Gregory, Aberdeen; geometry, op-
tics.
Flechier, Avignon; sermons, funeral ora-
tions, &c.
- Edmund Smith, Worcesterhire; Phedra, a
tragedy, translation of Longinus.
- 1712 Boileau, Paris; satires, epistles, art of poe-
try, the Lutrin, an heroi-comical poem,
epigrams, translation of Longinus.
Cassini, Italy; astronomy.
- 1713 Ant. Ash Cooper, E. of Shaftsbury; cha-
racteristica.
Dr. Archibald Pitcairn, Edinburgh, medi-
cine.
- 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, Bishop of Sa-
lisbury; history, biography, divinity, &c.
- 1715 Malebranche, Paris; philosophy.
- 1716 Francis De Salignac De la Mothe Fenelon,
Archbishop of Cambray, Perigord; Te-
lemachus, Dialogues of the Dead, Dialo-
gues on Eloquence, Demonstration of the
Being of God, &c.
Leibnitz, Leipzig; philosophy, &c.
- 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; seven trage-
dies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
- 1719 Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathe-
matics and astronomy.
Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guar-
dian, tragedy of Cato, poems, politics.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh, mathematics and
astronomy.
Sir Samuel Garth, Yorkshirc, poetry.
- 1720 Anne Dacier, France; translation of Homer,
Terence, &c.
- 1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and poli-
tics.
- 1723 Fleury, Paris; history.
Bayle, Foix; historical and critical diction-
ary.
- 1725 Rapin de Thoyras, Languedoc; history of
England.
- 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathema-
tics, geometry, astronomy, optics.
- 1728 Father Daniel, Rouen; history of France.
- 1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathe-
matics, divinity, &c.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies,
papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dra-
matic pieces.
- 1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and ele-
ven dramatic pieces.
- 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearnsire; medicine,
coins, politics.
- 1735 Vertot, France; Revolutions of Rome, Por-
tugal, Sweden, &c.
- 1738 Dr. Boerhaave, Leyden; medicine, botany.
- 1740 Ephraim Chambers, England; Cyclopaedia.
- 1741 Rollin, Paris; history, Belles Lettres.
John Baptist Rousseau, Paris; odes, epistles,
epigrams, comedies, letters.
Le Sage, Bretany; Gil Blas, &c.
- 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, London; natural phi-
losophy, astronomy, navigation.
- 1743 Mafillon, France; sermons.
- Richard Savage, London; a tragedy, poems.
- 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters,
translation of Homer.
- 1745 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin;
poems, politics, and letters.
- 1746 Colin McLaurin, Argyleshire; algebra, view
of Newton's philosophy.
- 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons,
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Reverend Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton;
logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, ser-
mons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ireland; system of
moral philosophy.
- 1750 Rev. Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshirc;
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Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphy-
sics and natural philosophy.
- 1751 Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, Surry;
philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.
- 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons,
plague, small pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones,
Joseph Andrews, &c.
- 1755 Montesquieu, Bordeaux; spirit of laws,
grandeur and declension of the Romans,
Persian letters, &c.
- 1756 W. Collins, Chichester; poetry.
West, England; translation of Pindar, poems.
- 1757 Reaumur, Rochelle; natural history of in-
sects.
Colley Cibber, London; plays.
- 1761 Sherlock, Bishop of London; 69 sermons,
&c.
Hoadley, Bishop of Winchester; sermons,
&c.
Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa,
Pamela.
Rev. Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; answer
to Deistical Writers.
- 1763 W. Shenstone, Shropshire; poems.
- 1764 Reverend Charles Churchill, England; Ro-
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- 1765 Rev. Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts,
and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simson, Glasgow; Conic Sections,
Euclid, Apollonius.

- 1767 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; Anatomy of the bones, anatomical and medical essays.
Muratori, Italy; history and antiquities, Metastasio, Italy; dramatic pieces, &c.
- 1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne, Dublin; 45 sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
William Cunningham, Ireland; Pastorals, &c.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
- 1770 Dr. Mark Akenfide, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, translations.
- 1771 Thomas Gray, London; poems.
- 1773 Earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith, Roscommon, in Ireland; History of the Earth and animated Nature, poems, Citizen of the World, essays, &c.
- 1775 Dr. John Hawkefworth; essays.
- 1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
- 1778 Voltaire, Paris; the Henriad, an epic poem, dramatic pieces, poetry, history, literature in general.
- 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays.
William Warburton, Bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, and Philosophical Arrangements.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, Bishop of Bristol, Litchfield; discourses on the prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxboroughshire; Diseases of the Army.
Henry Home, Lord Kames, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man, Principles of Equity, of Morality, Art of Thinking, Hints on Education, Gentleman-Farmer, Collection of Decisions of the Court of Session.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
John James Rousseau, Geneva; Emilius, a treatise on Education, Dictionary of Music, New Heloise, Letters, &c. &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Litchfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry. Died Dec. 13, aged 75.
- 1785 William Whitehead, Poet Laureat; poems and plays.
Dr. Thomas Leland, Ireland, History of Ireland, &c. &c.
- 1786 Dr. Gilbert Stuart, Edinburgh; History of Mary Queen of Scots, History of the Reformation, &c.
- 1788 The Count De Buffon, Paris; Natural History.

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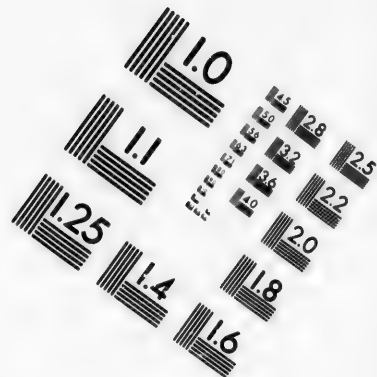
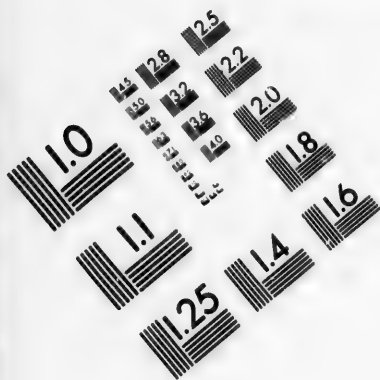
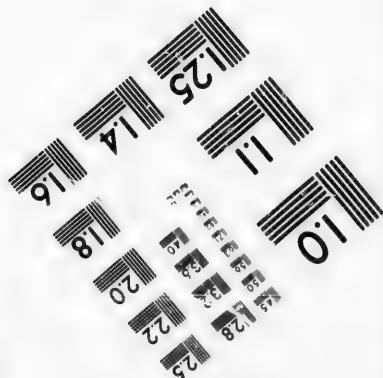
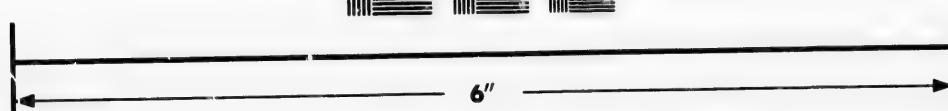
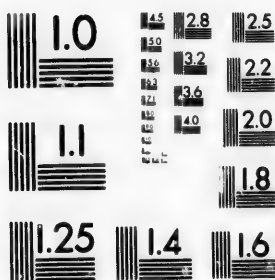


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